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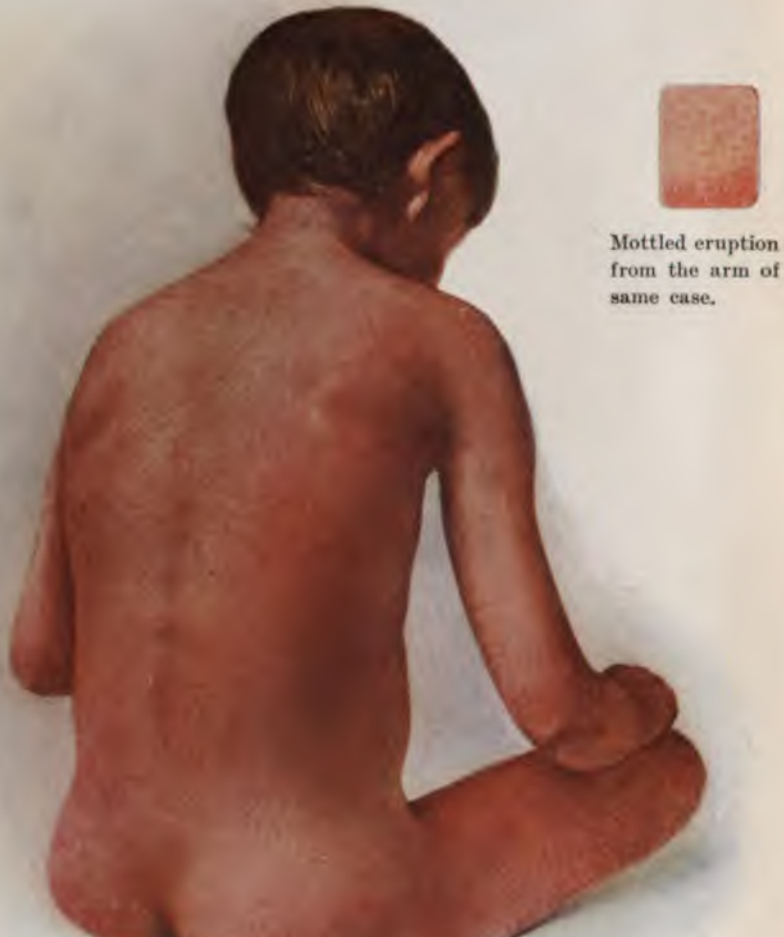
PLATE I



Mottled eruption
from the arm of
same case.

Severe Case of Scarlet Fever, showing eruption at its height. For strawberry tongue of same case, see Plate XXVIII. (Original.) (Painted from a case in the Riverside Hospital.)

DISEASES
OF
INFANCY AND CHILDHOOD

THEIR

DIETETIC, HYGIENIC, AND MEDICAL TREATMENT

A TEXT-BOOK DESIGNED FOR PRACTITIONERS
AND STUDENTS IN MEDICINE.

BY
LOUIS FISCHER, M.D.
ATTENDING PHYSICIAN TO THE WILLARD PARKER AND RIVERSIDE HOSPITALS OF NEW YORK CITY,
ATTENDING PEDIATRIST TO THE SYDENHAM HOSPITAL; FORMER INSTRUCTOR IN DISEASES
OF CHILDREN AT THE NEW YORK POST-GRADUATE MEDICAL SCHOOL AND HOSPITAL,
ETC., ETC.; FELLOW OF THE NEW YORK ACADEMY OF MEDICINE.

FIFTH EDITION

*WITH THREE HUNDRED AND ONE ILLUSTRATIONS, SEVERAL IN
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TO

ABRAHAM JACOBI, M.D., LL.D.,

FORMERLY PROFESSOR OF DISEASES OF CHILDREN IN THE COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY,
NEW YORK,

THIS VOLUME IS INSCRIBED

AS A TRIBUTE TO HIS PERSONAL WORTH, AND IN GRATEFUL REMEMBRANCE
OF COURTESIES RECEIVED,

BY THE AUTHOR

89637

PREFACE TO FIFTH EDITION.

THE unusual advances in pediatrics, especially treatment, during the last few years have made it imperative to practically rewrite the book. Every chapter has been carefully revised, so that each article is up to date.

In the section on nutrition, the protein element, which years ago was cautiously fed, is now given in large dosage. High fat, as given in cream feedings, has proven to be a disturbing element, and is now rarely fed. Sugar, until recently regarded as a neutral element, is frequently a disturbing factor. The studies of food metabolism have taught us that most cases of dyspepsia are due to over-feeding.

The new classification of gastric and intestinal derangements (Berlin School) is given, so that food intoxication, weight disturbance, and decomposition form new and important chapters.

Milk idiosyncrasies have been investigated, and most cases proven to be anaphylactic reactions.

Articles on anaphylaxis, amœbiasis, uncinariasis, acetonemia, and spasmophilia have been added.

The infectious diseases deserve especial mention. Many pages of statistics and some of the less important illustrations have been dropped, and new cuts added, among which of more than usual interest will be found color plates of scurvy and the enanthem in measles. The illustrations on intubation have been enlarged, and cross-section illustrations, with tube *in situ*, have been added.

Vaccine or serum therapy has been described and clinical cases given. The luetin test in syphilis added. An entirely new index has been written.

I am indebted to Dr. John A. Fordyce for many suggestions in the revision of my article on skin diseases; to Dr. Geo. W. Jacoby, on the brain and nervous system; to Dr. Thomas I. Story, on exercise from a standpoint of prophylaxis; to Dr. Wm. H. Stewart for many x-ray illustrations and diagnostic points.

I am under deep obligation to Miss Alice Haehnlen, R. N., for her untiring assistance in the revision of this book.

I also desire to acknowledge the courtesy of Dr. Robert T. Wilson and Dr. Louis Sexton for statistics of scarlet fever from the Willard Parker Hospital, and the courtesy and valuable co-operation which the staff of the F. A. Davis Co. has extended during the preparation of this new edition.

LOUIS FISCHER.

155 West 85th St.,
New York City.

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PART I.

THE DEVELOPMENT AND HYGIENE OF THE INFANT. DIAGNOSTIC SUGGESTIONS.

CHAPTER I.

INFANCY AND CHILDHOOD.

THE NEW-BORN INFANT.

THERE are several anatomical and physiological changes which occur when an infant passes from a passive intrauterine to an active extrauterine existence. The lungs have had no intrauterine function. They become active as soon as the infant makes its first inspiration. The stomach and bowels become active the moment the first mouthful of food is swallowed. The blood-vessels of the umbilical cord, which have nourished the child and connected it with the circulatory system of its mother, rapidly atrophy as soon as breathing is established. The following are the most important changes that take place during the first month of an infant's life:—

1. The meconium is expelled.
2. The umbilical cord separates.
3. The navel becomes cicatrized.
4. The epidermis cracks and falls off.
5. The hair is renewed.
6. The umbilical vessels are obliterated, and the foramen ovale is closed.

Infancy.—The term infancy is best applied to that period from the end of the first month until all of the milk-teeth have appeared, which is about the end of the second year of life.

There are certain anatomical peculiarities which may be important to mention, namely:—

1. The thymus gland.
2. The large size of the liver.
3. The existence of an anterior and posterior fontanel.

Childhood.—The term childhood is applied to that period from the end of the second year to about the sixteenth year.

Childhood ends when puberty begins. Then follows the stage of *adolescence.*

CHAPTER II.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE VARIOUS SENSES.

MENTAL FACULTIES.[1]

THE following is the order in which the various senses appear developed: taste, sight, touch.

Reflex Actions.—Yawning may begin at the end of the first week of life.

Sighing commences in the twenty-eighth week.

Urine is passed and attention called to it by the infant between the thirty-sixth and fortieth weeks. From this time on it is advisable to try to train the child to be clean and use a chair.

Suckling or Nursing.—This seems to be congenitally acquired. Between the eighth and tenth months an infant should know enough to properly guide a nursing bottle to its mouth. It should also know enough to properly inspect its various toys at this age.

Supporting the Head.—The infant should support its head for a few moments in the fourteenth week, and should be able to properly support the head about the sixteenth week.

Sitting usually commences between the seventeenth and twenty-sixth weeks. The child should be able to properly support the body between the thirty-sixth and fortieth weeks. About the forty-second week the child should be strong enough to support its back thoroughly. Commencing with the forty-fifth week the sitting position should be permanently established.

When children can sit up and play they should be placed on the floor, having a clean rug under them. Active movements can be suggested by rolling a small ball or giving the child some toy to play with. The tendency to put everything into the mouth must be considered. Hence, large toys, such as hollow rubber balls, are best. Playing with beans, peas, and bullets has frequently given many a physician an opportunity to try his skill in removing them from such places as the middle ear, the nostril, and most frequently the stomach.

Stamping with the feet in the forty-fourth week.

The first attempts at walking appear about the forty-first week. *Walking* unaided is rare before the end of the first year. Two-fifths of all children learn to walk between the fourteenth and fifteenth months. Thus children must not be expected to walk properly until they are one and a half years old.

---

[1] The brain, fontanel, and reflexes of the body are described in detail in Part IX, "Diseases of the Brain and Nervous System."

Children having suffered with disordered stomach and bowels, whether from faulty feeding or inherited disease (syphilis) or other organic disorders, may, if urged to walk in this weakened condition, invite deformities, such as bow-legs.

Children will not *jump, climb, throw things, or turn* unaided before they are between two and three years old.

Infants do not learn to *imitate* before the twenty-eighth week.

Laughing begins as early as the eighth, sometimes not before the seventeenth, week. An infant will laugh heartily with tears in its eyes about the forty-fourth week. The mouth will show an expression the moment the infant's attention is attracted, between the third and seventh week.

Kissing with the lips usually at the fifteenth month.

Tears, when crying, can be noticed after the tenth week.

Memory.—The memory of an infant can be noticed sometimes before the thirtieth week.

The *taste of milk*, the *sense of feeling*, the *sight of the mother*, the *presence of the father or the nurse*, are distinctly apparent about this same time. An infant will notice the absence of its mother about the fourth month, and also notice the difference in the sound of the voice. The *memory* seems to be most acute in the fourth year of life. It is surprising to see how much children will remember, and how acute their mental faculties will be, in the fourth year of life.

Voice Sounds.—Children will study the movements of the mouth of adults, and will learn to note the difference in sound. They will remember the meaning of words, especially when brought into use in connection with certain objects or places. Words will be uttered in accordance with no distinct rule. This is a peculiar individuality which is difficult to record. One child will speak ten words at the age of ten months, and be in a normal condition. Another child will speak but six words at the age of sixteen months and yet be physically and mentally in a normal condition. This shows the marked difference in various children in apparently good health.

VERY LATE SPEAKING, SLOW DEVELOPMENT, GOOD PROGNOSIS.[1]

The center of speech may be inactive, and show no signs of development until the end of the second year. If the child is otherwise healthy no alarm need be felt at this state of affairs. If, however, the child is backward in its physical development as well as its mental development, then treatment must be sought to remedy this condition. If a child has rickets, its soft bones and flabby muscles require restorative treatment.

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[1] See article on "Alalia Idiopathica," Part IX.

SUDDEN LOSS OF SPEECH DUE TO PARALYSIS.

If an infant shows proper development, commences to speak, and for no apparent reason stops speaking, the cause of the condition should be carefully investigated. For example: A child suffering from a severe infectious disease, like diphtheria, may, during convalescence, develop paralysis, which might cause the sudden cessation of speech. The neglect of treatment at such a time may result in permanent injury to the child.

CHAPTER III.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE BODY.

GROWTH AND HEIGHT.

THE average height of the new-born male is from 19½ to 20 inches (about 50 centimeters). In the female from 19¼ to 19¾ inches (about 48.5 centimeters). Holt's average is one inch more in both male and female children at birth. A child grows most rapidly during its first year.

TABLE NO. 1.

Increase during	
First year	5 to 6½ inches.
Second year	2½ to 3½ inches.
Third year	2⅓ to 2⅔ inches.
Fourth year	about 2 inches.
Fifth to sixteenth year	annual increase from 1½ to 2 inches.
Sixteenth to seventeenth year	1½ inches.
Seventeenth to twentieth year	1 inch yearly.

Diseases of the bones, rickets, and scrofula retard growth. A child should begin to walk at the end of twelve months. If a child, when commencing to walk, uses chiefly its toes and has a limping gait, more especially if symptoms of pain be noticed in one knee, and tenderness be caused by handling the limb, commencing hip-joint disease may be inferred.

DENTITION.

Dentition is regarded by most authors as a physiological process. Teeth are developed at birth and grow with the infant until they pierce the gum. A series of nervous disorders occur after the fourth month and during the eruption of the teeth. Such symptoms are a very warm mouth, red and inflamed gums, and an excessive secretion of saliva. Rachitic children and those having a highly sensitive nervous system will be very restless at night. They will roll the head and frequently cry with pain. A finger will usually be found between the gums, and the child will try to bite everything within its grasp. These symptoms seem to disappear after the eruption of the tooth, so there seems to be some relation between the tooth and the symptoms described. Rotch states that in certain infants, during the completion of the development of a tooth, symptoms connected with the ear will manifest themselves. The symptoms are usually produced by a congestion of the blood-vessels of the ear which is accompanied by pain and sometimes results in an inflammation.

Treatment of Inflamed Gums.—When the gums are tense and inflamed, severe nervous manifestations frequently exist. An incision made into the gums, deep enough to reach the tooth, has frequently been the means of producing relief by local depletion. Relieving the tense gum besides abstracting the blood has served me in some cases. The indiscriminate lancing of the gums must be warned against. In most cases local application will relieve. The application of a 1 to 5000 solution of adrenalin acts very well. It may be repeated every hour. A drop of laudanum on absorbent cotton placed in the middle ear seems to act well in some instances. In rare instances we will be told that a child has had convulsions. I must emphatically reiterate that such cerebral or nervous symptoms are apt to occur in the sick infant, and will never occur in the healthy infant.

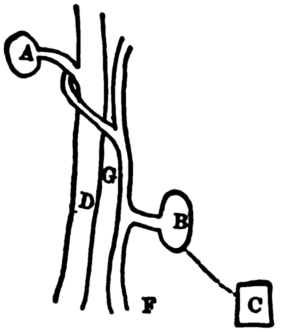

Fig. 1.—A, tympanic cavity; B, otic ganglion; C, tooth; D, internal carotid; E, tympanic branch; F, auriculo-temporal nerve; G, auricular branch of auriculo-temporal nerve. The dotted line connecting B and C represents the inferior dental nerve. (Rotch.)

The association of bronchitis or diarrhœa must be looked upon as entirely independent of dentition. The laity are very willing to ascribe most disorders arising at or about the period of dentition as due to the teething. The following case will illustrate how careful one must be not to be guided by the statements of irresponsible persons, and diagnose dentition:—

A child, fifteen months old, was seen by me in consultation. This was a well-nourished, breast-fed infant, and had four incisors, two upper and two lower. The mother stated that the child had had a cough and fever at and before the appearance of each tooth. She was very emphatic in stating that her baby was "teething." There were anorexia and slight constipation. A dose of castor-oil was given, but the symptoms continued. The child was very thirsty and seemed to lose flesh. The temperature in the rectum was 103° F., pulse 150, respiration 30. An examination of the chest showed moist râles and quite diffuse rhonchi. There were a marked area of dullness and bronchial breathing in the upper lobe of the right side. The diagnosis of pneumonia was made. Four or five weeks later I again saw this child. The

cough still existed, and a suspicion of whooping-cough was expressed. An exploratory puncture showed pus. The diagnosis of empyema was made. The child was operated upon and made a brilliant recovery.

The teeth usually appear, according to Professor Baginsky, between the third and tenth months. The usual rule is for normal dentition to begin about the seventh or the eighth month.

In a great variety of children premature teething is recorded; I have seen a great many children born with two or more teeth.

Rachitic children, as a rule, teeth very early or very late. In the large children's service with which I have been connected I have observed the eruption of teeth many times as early as two or three months in very rickety, bottle-fed children. These teeth soon decay, and are then known as carious teeth.

In syphilitic (congenital) children premature dentition is frequently seen.

The first teeth are known as *milk-teeth.*

The following table will show the usual rule followed by normal dentition in the average child:—

TABLE NO. 2.

19	11	13	5	3	4	6	14	9	17
20	12	15	7	1	2	8	16	10	18

The milk-teeth are twenty in number; thus, one and two are the lower incisors, usually first teeth; then follow three and four, upper incisors.

Normal children usually teeth in pairs, and not singly, whereas rachitic children usually have an eruption of single teeth, and distinct backwardness in their appearance. Deciduous teeth, commonly called milk-teeth, remain until a child is 6 years old, when the permanent teeth appear.

Baginsky emphasizes the fact that enough stress is not laid on the clinical importance of carious teeth as indicating tuberculosis and scrofulous conditions. In the section on treatment of rickets I have mentioned the value of a nitrogenous diet, especially proteids (albuminoids), to aid in the formation of bony structures. The teeth are also included in this category.

Thus, when such drugs as glycerophosphate of lime or iron and hygienic measures are indicated for the treatment of rickets they are of especial value when backwardness in teething exists.

When diarrhœa or cholera infantum cleanses the system and when the disease is arrested or well under way, normal physiological conditions, such as dentition previously delayed, are vigorously continued. Frequently teeth will appear immediately following such an acute disease; thus, an apparent delayed dentition, due to a pathological process, will be attributed by the laity to the disease or sickness called teething.

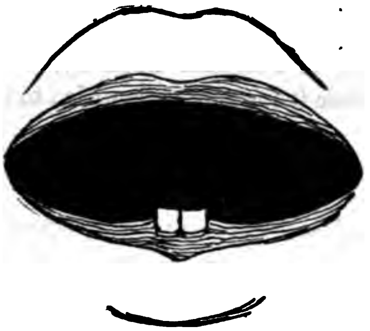

Fig. 2.—Two Middle Lower Incisors. Three to Ten Months; Average, Seven Months.

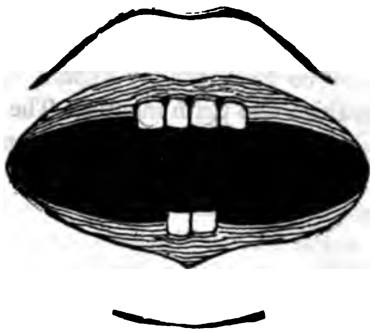

Fig. 3.—Four Upper Incisors. Nine to Sixteen Months.

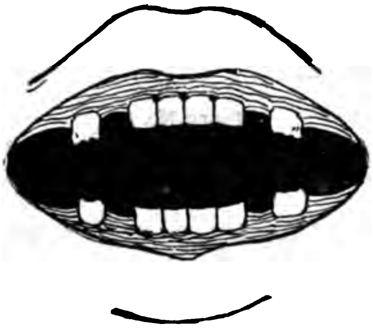

Fig. 4.—Two Lateral Lower Incisors and Four Anterior Molars. Thirteen to Seventeen Months.

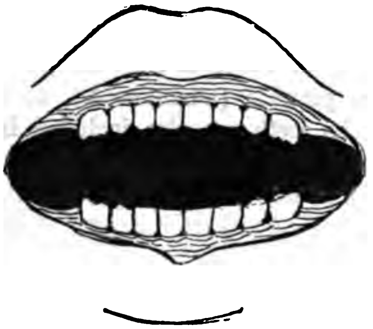

Fig. 5.—Four Canines. Sixteen to Twenty-one Months.

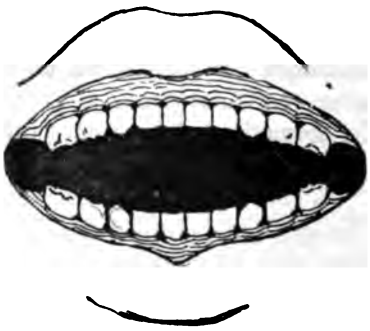

Fig. 6.—Twenty Milk Teeth. Twenty-three to Thirty-six Months, although the Average is Twenty-four to Thirty Months.

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[1] I am indebted to Dr. Dillon Brown for the illustrations, which have recently appeared in "The Nursery."

CHAPTER IV.

DIAGNOSTIC SUGGESTIONS.[1]

It is a very difficult matter to give as distinct clinical pictures of children in certain diseases as we can of adults. The following points are important enough to be noted:—

First.—There is an absence of expectoration in respiratory diseases. Infants cough and usually swallow their expectoration.

Second.—An absence of distinct chills and rigors as seen in adults.

Third.—The tongue, so valuable in adults as an aid to diagnosis, may frequently be overlooked as a symptom of importance in young children.

Fourth.—Very high temperature and pulse-rate may be associated with trivial, just as well as they only too frequently denote serious, conditions. A normal temperature is frequently seen in septic diphtheria; we must, therefore, not judge a case by the temperature alone.

Fifth.—The great peristaltic activity and the anatomical difference in the shape of the stomach at birth render such symptoms as vomiting and diarrhœa trivial compared with what such symptoms would denote in an older and fully developed child.

Dr. West ably says: "You cannot question your patient, or, if old enough to speak, still, through fear, or from comprehending you but imperfectly, he will probably give you an incorrect reply. You try to gather information from the expression of his countenance, but the child is fretful and will not bear to be looked at; you endeavor to feel his pulse, and he struggles in alarm; you try to auscultate his chest, and he breaks into a violent fit of crying." Such technical difficulties each medical man must try to overcome, and here it is that the ingenuity of the practicing physician is brought into play.

There are a great many important points which have a bearing upon the diagnosis and which it is well to formulate: First, try to examine the infant when asleep. Note the color of the face, if flushed or pale; the color of the lips, if white or cyanotic; the condition of the skin, if dry or moist; if perspiration is confined to the head or forehead, or if it affects the whole body. Second, note the frequency and character of respiration, if painful or natural; moaning, twitching, or grinding of teeth; the action of the nostrils, if quiet or dilating; the eyes if closed, partly closed, or staring. Third, note the condition of the fontanels, if closed or open, if pulsating, if distended, full, and bulging, or if sunken.

---

[1] The Babinski reflex, Kernig's sign, tache cerebrale, and the technique of lumbar puncture are described in detail in the chapter on "Meningitis," Part IX.

The pulse-rate should be noted. In counting the pulse-rate certain allowances must be made for excitement. The sudden slamming of a door, etc., will startle infants and cause the pulse to increase at times from ten to twenty beats.

The pulse varies in infants from 110 to 150. It may be irregular, consistently with health. After the seventh year it is found to be quicker in the female. It is sometimes slower during sleep. A very slow pulse is not always an indication of cerebral disease.

In a study of over 1000 children in health, the following average table of pulse was found (Fischer):—

TABLE No. 3.

At birth	130 to 140
First year	115 to 130
Second year	100 to 115
Third year	90 to 100
Seventh year	86 to 96
Fourteenth year	84 to 94

TABLE No. 4.

	Pulse Rate:	
	While Asleep.	*Awake, Crying.*
Infant ten days old	146	164
One month old	150	176
Two months old	120	150
Three months old	112	148
Six months old	98	122
One year old	100	120
Two years old	98	108

A diagnosis can frequently be made by the condition of the pulse-rate added to the general condition. If an infant is suddenly taken ill with fever, with symptoms of nausea and vomiting, a dry coated tongue, and the pulse-rate about 130, we may look for an acute gastric fever. Such is usually the case if the history points to a diet of cake and pie, or cheese, in a very young child.

If, however, the child is feverish and vomits and the pulse-rate is between 70 and 80, then we should suspect tubercular meningitis rather than an acute febrile disease. Note the condition of the child's awakening; every young infant in a healthy condition awakens with a smile, does not frown, is not peevish.

Frequently, if the clinical history is looked into, we can learn just when the infant first became restless or showed some sign of disturbance.

This will usually mark the beginning of an illness, if the same is an acute condition.

The Respirations.—From 1 to 2 years of age a child should breathe from 24 to 36 times in a minute. The breathing should be diaphragmatic in character; in ordinary breathing there should be no recession of the chest walls; this occurs in sobbing or if a mechanical impediment exists to the entrance of air into the lungs.

The number of respirations per minute ranges from 30 to 50; in early infancy 39 is the actual average.

TABLE No. 5.

From two months to two years, the average is 35.
From two years to six years, the average is 18 during sleep, 23 awake.
From six years to twelve years, the average is 18 during sleep, 23 awake.
From twelve years to fifteen years, the average is 18 during sleep, 20 awake.

Temperature.—The normal temperature of the child, taken in the rectum, varies between 99⅗° and 100° F. Fever undoubtedly exists if temperature over 100° F. is noted. The cause should be searched for. No indication is more simple or more valuable than that supplied by the thermometer. By its aid alone we are often led to suspect the advent of typhoid or scarlet fever, or to detect some latent pneumonia, or tubercle producing irritation, or some other malady which we had overlooked. It should be remembered that *rigors* do not occur in very young children, but that *convulsions and delirium* correspond in a great measure to *rigors and headache* in an adult. The temperature is an important guide as to the condition of an infant. The pulse-rate and the character of the pulse are even more important.

Dr. Finlayson has bestowed much attention on the subject of temperature in young children, and his observations go to show:—

1. That there is a fall of temperature normally in the evening of 1°, 2°, or even 3° F.
2. This fall may take place before sleep begins.
3. It is usually greatest between 7 and 9 P.M.
4. The minimum is at or before 2 A.M.
5. After 2 A.M. it again rises, and that independently of food, etc., being taken—rises, in fact, during sleep.
6. The fluctuations between breakfast and tea are usually trifling.
7. The rise in a day to 104° or 105° F. precludes typhus and typhoid, not scarlatina.
8. In typhoid a gradual increase for the first four days with morning remissions is diagnostic (Wunderlich).
9. In tubercle the evening temperature is as high or, according to Dr. Ringer, higher than in the morning.

RULES TO BE OBSERVED IN TAKING TEMPERATURE OF INFANTS

1. Be sure you have a good thermometer.

2. Inspect it and see that it is well shaken down to below normal before using it.

3. Anoint it with vaseline or oil.

4. Always use the rectum for infants.

5. Remember that infants always object to interference; hence the thermometer should be watched; otherwise an accident may happen.

6. The best position for the child is to lay it face downward on the nurse's lap.

7. Remember that impacted fæces in the rectum and fermentative conditions usually increase the temperature.

The Eye.—Squinting in acute illness is a grave prognostic; it may occur from reflex irritation, or from paralysis, or from convulsions, but the convulsions may cease and the squint remain for awhile or even permanently. When strabismus occurs in tubercular meningitis, it is usually a fatal sign.

A small pupil is not so common as a large one; it occurs in active congestion, in opium poisoning, and in sleep. It should be remembered that the eye is always more or less turned up beneath the upper lid. Large pupils, if equal in size, are only of grave import when insensible to light; inequality of the pupils coming on in acute illness is a very grave prognostic. M. Jadelot has noticed that the form of the pupil is irregular in children suffering from the intestinal irritation of worms.

The following aphorisms of Bouchut are of practical value:—

1. In early childhood there is no relation between the intensity of the symptoms and the material lesion. The most intense fever, with restlessness, cries, and spasmodic movements, may disappear in twenty-four hours without leaving any trace.

2. Abundant perspiration is not observed in very young children; it is entirely replaced by moisture.

3. Fever always presents considerable remissions in the acute diseases of young children.

4. In the chronic diseases of infancy, fever is almost always intermittent.

5. When children are asleep their pulse diminishes from 15 to 20 beats. The muscular movements which accompany cough, crying, agitation, etc., raise the pulse 15, 30, or even 40 pulsations.

6. The diseases of youth always retard the process of growth.

It is a good plan to auscultate the chest before resorting to percussion. The back of the chest is the most important to auscultate in a sick child. If there are no physical signs pointing to bronchitis or pneumonia in the back of the lungs, then it is unlikely that the front of the chest will show any signs. To be sure, however, both back and front of chest should be examined.

Dr. Vogel gives a valuable caution, viz., that *dullness on the right side posteriorly is a normal physiological condition.* Owing to abdominal pressure the abdominal organs, and notably the liver (as especially affecting the right side), is pressed upward.

Gestures are often significant. In brain disease the child puts its hand to its head, pulls at its hair, rolls its head on the pillow, and beats the air. In abdominal disease the legs are drawn up, the face is sunken and anxious, and the child picks at the clothes. In urgent dyspnœa it tears at its throat or puts its hand in its mouth, especially when false membranes are forming, or the tongue is much furred, as in fever, etc.

The cry varies; it is labored, as if half suffocated, or as if a door were shut between the child and the hearer, in pneumonia and capillary bronchitis; it is hoarse in croup, brassy and metallic, with crowing inspirations; in cerebral disease, especially in hydrocephalus, it is sharp, shrill, and solitary, the so-called "cri hydrocephalique," whereas in marasmus and tubercular peritonitis it is moaning and wailing. Obstinate and *long-continued crying* lasting for hours is referable usually to one of two causes; *earache* or *hunger.* A louder, shriller cry, also on coughing or produced in moving the child, is pleuritic. A cry accompanied with wriggling and writhing and preceding defecation is intestinal. M. Billard distinguishes between the cry and the return, the cry proper being the expiratory act, while the return occurs during inspiration. The cry proper is sonorous and prolonged; the return is shorter and sharper; the return is feeble in young infants, but increases in strength as the child grows older. It is the return that grows weak or ceases toward the end of all diseases. Moaning is especially characteristic of the alimentary canal.

The Tongue.—The following are the chief indications derived from observations of the tongue: 1. A furred tongue with whitish fur scattered over it indicates dyspepsia and intestinal irritation. 2. A red, dry, hot tongue points to inflammation of the mouth, stomach, etc. 3. Aphthæ often result from sheer starvation and neglect. 4. A pale flabby tongue marked at the edges with the teeth shows great debility. 5. White fur is generally indicative of fever. 6. Yellow fur of liver and stomach derangement of long standing. 7. Brown fur of a low typhoid condition. Besides these, special conditions, as the "strawberry tongue" of scarlatina, the glazed tongue of dyspepsia, etc., will be noted under the special diseases they characterize.

The Throat.—*No matter what the child suffers with, it is imperative to examine the throat.* Advantage can be taken of the infant while crying to observe the tongue, the teeth, the gums, the mouth in general, and the throat in particular. The neglect of an examination of the throat has frequently been the means of disseminating diphtheria. Many a child's life has been sacrificed by failure to make a minute examination of the throat.

Sleep.—Healthy infants normally sleep from eighteen to twenty hours out of twenty-four. Thus, if infants are restless and do not sleep, such insomnia denotes illness.

Presuming that we have had an opportunity to examine the infant during sleep, let us then have the child undressed and notice the surface of the skin; it should be mottled, the flesh firm, the skin smooth and elastic to the touch, and not flabby; there should be no impediment to the motion of either the arms or legs, they should move freely; the joints should be noted if they are swollen, if large or small; the epiphyses of the long bones should be carefully noted, and evidences of rickets determined, as this has an important bearing on various infantile diseases.

I have previously called attention to the necessity of undressing a child for its proper examination. Fever which cannot be explained may have an eruption of scarlet fever on the body. This can only be detected by undressing and examining the infant.

PROGNOSIS.

In giving an opinion as to the probable outcome of a given case, we must be guided by the following conditions: Has the infant a good foundation—been breast-fed in infancy—or are we dealing with a marasmic or rachitic infant? The resistance offered to the acute infectious diseases by an infant nursed at the breast is most probably due to the antitoxic virtues found in the milk. The temperature should not always be the guide. Infants respond very quickly to disease and show very high temperatures. They are more susceptible to infections than adults. A high fever may appear and disappear very suddenly; hence we should not base our prognosis on the sudden appearance of temperature. The pulse—the heart action—is our best guide in estimating the outcome of a given case. The amount of food taken during an illness and the digestion and assimilation of the same are important factors in estimating the condition of the little patient. Constant fever, loss of appetite and sleep, with resulting heart weakness, should be regarded as symptoms of a critical condition.

INFANT MORTALITY.

Through the vigilance of the health department New York City has secured a good milk supply. The feeding of impure milk was always considered the reason for the high infant mortality, especially during the summer months. Although the mortality has been reduced to 22 per cent., there is still room for improvement. The infant mortality in infectious eases has also been greatly reduced. This is largely due to the immuniz- injections of antitoxin and the more generalized use of antitoxin as a eventive measure.

The statistics of the mortality in diphtheria, scarlet fever, and measles ow a reduction in the mortality of 10 to 20 per cent. during the last enty years. The sanitary environment has changed. The beneficial ange has been largely due to three factors: first, the better milk supply; cond, preventive measures, such as immunizing doses of antitoxin to pre- nt diphtheria after exposure, and, third, to fresh air—this implies windows en, new parks, roof gardens, and education of the masses to a proper iderstanding of the virtues of fresh air in health, and especially in disease.

The public is learning to appreciate the benefits of open-air classes for e anæmic children in the public schools. Roof-garden instruction and the rict supervision of the public schools, due to the efficiency of medical spectors, have lessened contagion among school children. The parents children suffering with adenoids and diseased tonsils are notified and vised regarding their danger. The open-air treatment of tuberculous ints established by the S. I. C. P. and the sun therapy (heliotherapy) ve accomplished excellent results at Coney Island and elsewhere. Such erapeutic measures prolong life and reduce mortality.

BLE No. 6.—*Two Hundred Deaths—Their Mode of Feeding (Louis Fischer). Inquiry into 200 Deaths, Taken at Random at the Children's Service of the German Poliklinik and West Side German Dispensary.*

Age in Months.	Cases Investigated.	On Breast Only.	On Breast Partially.	Bottle Feeding Only.
3	78	5	8	65
6	30	7	12	11
9	64	12	16	36
2	28	9	12	7
	200	33	48	119

The above children were inhabitants of both the East and West Side New York City, living in crowded apartments. The hygienic factor is, erefore, an important one. Sixty per cent. of these children died from stric and intestinal disease. About 30 per cent. died from catarrhal dis- ses affecting the air passages, such as bronchitis, pneumonia, and tuber- losis. The rest died from infectious diseases and surgical accidents.

X-RAY OR ROENTGEN RAY IN DIAGNOSIS.

During the last few years radiographic examinations form a most luable adjunct to our methods of diagnosis in infancy and childhood.

The possibility of an instantaneous exposure any time of the day or night has minimized the difficulty which formerly existed in taking pictures of restless or very sick children.

Radiographic examination was formerly limited to the bony structures; hence was utilized in the diagnosis and treatment of fractures and dislocations. In addition to diseases affecting the bony structures, it is now possible to differentiate a syphilitic periostitis from a rachitis. Subperiosteal hæmorrhages and structural changes occurring in scurvy are revealed. An early, positive diagnosis of acute miliary tuberculosis with or without calcification of the glands can be made.

Stomach conditions are now universally studied by radiographs of the alimentary tract, after the administration of some insoluble substance, as the bismuth salts, which obstruct the Roentgen ray. Pyloric spasm and pyloric stenosis can easily be differentiated, the importance of which is apparent, before the aid of the surgeon is called.

Exudations, effusions, and transudations in obscure cases of empyema, intra-abdominal or thoracic effusions can be diagnosed. The presence of obscure neoplasms, a tumor in the brain, the spine, or in any of the larger viscera can be made out with the aid of the x-ray. In a case seen recently, hypernephroma involving the left kidney was easily located by this means. A calculus in the kidney, ureter, or urethra is quickly located. Structural changes in the bones and congenital defects hitherto unsuspected can be found.

In diseases of the mouth and jaw affecting the teeth or the antrum of Highmore and in frontal sinus infections we can receive valuable assistance. It is too early to predict the possibilities of the therapeutic value of the x-ray, but the diagnostic aid rendered is indisputable.

CHAPTER V.

GENERAL HYGIENE OF THE INFANT.

HYGIENE OF THE MOUTH AND TEETH.

Mouth.—Care should be bestowed on the mouth and teeth. The new-born baby should receive an occasional washing of its mouth with a weak solution of boric acid and water. This should be done very carefully and gently, or the delicate floor or roof of the mouth will be denuded of its epithelium and invite infection.

Bednar directed attention to the presence of aphthæ due to traumatism. (See "Bednar's Aphthæ.")

The Teeth.—When teeth are present they should be kept clean. It is especially advisable to have the teeth cleaned with a weak alkaline solution, such as bicarbonate of soda in water. Neglect of the teeth will result in caries and foul breath. A dentist should be consulted if there is the slightest evidence of decay. The necessity for healthy teeth is very apparent in infancy and childhood. A practical method of cleaning the teeth of children is to use a pinch of table salt in lukewarm water.

THE MANAGEMENT OF THE NAVEL (UMBILICUS). THE UMBILICAL CORD.[1]

If the child is in a good condition and is not blue (cyanotic), and if the pulsations of the umbilical cord have ceased, then the cord can be tied about one or two inches from the child's body. If the child is feeble we can gain by waiting for a few moments as we admit oxygenated blood through the umbilical vessels into the child's body. The point to be remembered is "to tie the cord if the pulsations therein have almost ceased." This usually takes from two to five minutes.

Some authors, *e.g.*, Professor Epstein, advise making a gauze pouch resembling a small tobacco pouch to tie the cord. This can be easily sterilized by baking in an oven about thirty or forty minutes. Care must be taken that the heat is not too great or the gauze will be burnt.

Do Not Use Oil or Salves.—When salves or oils are used they exclude the air and prevent the drying of the umbilical cord, which is so desirable. In order, therefore, to admit a current of air through the gauze to the cord,

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[1] **Diseases of the umbilicus—hæmorrhages, etc.—are described in Part II.**

nothing greasy should be used. The best thing to use is arrowroot or cornstarch or a talcum powder containing 1 per cent. of salicylic acid.

The following two prescriptions are recommended as drying powders:—

℞ Talcum	100 grains.
Salicylic acid	1 grain.

Mix and apply thoroughly every morning.

℞ Talcum	100 grains.
Boric acid	1 grain.

Use as above stated.

If the child's condition is normal and healthy action takes place, then the cord usually falls off in about five to ten days.

After-treatment.—The after-treatment consists in sprinkling one of the above-mentioned drying powders, and covering the region of the umbilicus with several dry layers of plain sterilized gauze, over which an abdominal binder should be placed.

An excellent powder is sold in the shops under the name of Velvet Skin Powder. It contains the following ingredients:—

Boric acid	1 gram.
Lycopodium	0.5 gram.
Orris root	7.5 grams.
Boro-tannate of aluminium	0.25 gram.
Talcum	q. s. ad 100 grams.

VERNIX CASEOSA.

The child at birth is covered with vernix caseosa. It is Nature's lubricant to protect the infant from the change of temperature prior to and after birth.

It is advisable to lubricate the body with olive or sweet oil. This will soften and remove the vernix caseosa. This can be continued daily until the cord has fallen off.

THE FIRST BATH OF THE NEW-BORN BABY.

The ease with which an infection can take place through the umbilical[1] vessels accounts for most authors advising *against the first bath being given until the umbilical cord has separated from the body.* After the cord has separated and there is no evidence of inflammation or suppuration in the region of the umbilicus, then the first bath may be given. This is usually about the end of the first week.

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[1] For disease of the umbilicus read Part II, Chapter on "Umbilicus."

BATHING THE BABY.

The temperature of the bath for a new-born baby should be warmer than the baths given as the child's age progresses. It is advisable to bathe a new-born baby in water having a temperature between 95° and 100° F. To determine the temperature of a bath it is necessary to have a bath thermometer. One having a wooden casing is preferable.

We should never guess at the temperature of a bath. Sometimes a bath that feels very hot to a sensitive skin may not be as warm as we imagine; hence, the rule should be, "depend on the thermometer." The temperature of the bath should be lowered or made cooler as the infant grows older.

The temperature can be lowered five degrees from month to month until the bath is given at a temperature of 75° F. This is a tepid bath which can be continued during both winter and summer months for the first year of life.

Additional Cleanliness.—It is self-understood that every infant requires additional sponge baths to keep its buttocks and genitals clean, especially so after each bowel movement. If a child is properly washed or sponged it is not necessary to overdo the use of soap.

The Use of Soap.—Excessive use of soap will provoke eczema. Soap acts as an irritant to the skin if overused. There are some bland soaps which, if used in moderation, will do good; thus, the ordinary olive-oil soap, commonly known as castile soap, or the ordinary glycerine soap found in drug stores is very good. Medicated soaps are of no value for a new-born baby unless some special form of soap is required in a skin disease.

After the Bath.—The child's body should be thoroughly dried and powdered, especially in the folds of the skin between the thighs, in the armpits, around the neck, the back, and the abdomen. We should use powder very liberally, as the dryer the skin is kept, the less chance will there be for the development of an eczema.

Sensitive Skin.—If an infant's skin shows a tendency to be red and chafed it is advisable to use no soap at all, but an ordinary bath or an oatmeal bath made in the following manner will be found advantageous:—

Oatmeal Bath.—*How to make the bath:* Take between two and three pounds of good oatmeal, and sew into a bag made of cheesecloth. Place the bag with the oatmeal in the infant's bathtub, containing one-half the quantity of water to be used for the bath. After the bag has soaked for about one-half hour, add enough water to bathe the child's body therein. The duration of the bath shall be about five to ten minutes. After the bath dry the body thoroughly and apply the following ointment wherever the skin is tender:—

℞ Calaminaris	5 parts.
Zinc ointment	50 parts.

Apply with a piece of clean gauze over the affected parts. Do not use the fingers for applying the salve.

When to Stop Bathing.—It is advisable not to bathe if an infant has an eczema or a very reddened skin, and it is a good rule to follow never to bathe if an eruption of the body is present, unless such eruption is due to an irritation applied to the skin. Turpentine, mustard, and camphorated oil, when rubbed into the skin, will cause an eruption resembling scarlet fever. Under such conditions the bath may be used; when fever appears the bath may be continued, providing there is no eruptive disease like measles or scarlet fever, and then even the baths may be given if the attending physician so desires. When children have a cough or during catarrhal manifestations, it may be advisable in some instances to discontinue the bath for a day or two. Great care should be used while bathing a child suffering with vulvo-vaginitis to avoid infecting the eyes.

CLOTHING.

In New York and similar climates children should be comfortably clad. The body *should never be overheated.* The trouble usually found is that children are coddled and their bodies overheated by an excess of flannels. I have frequently had occasion to treat eruptions similar to the lichen tropicus which was produced by an *excessive amount of clothing* and consequent perspiration.

The body should be well protected in winter, and very loose, light clothes should be worn in summer. No infant should be strapped tightly, but due allowance must be made for respiration and for the normal exercise of the infant, namely, by permitting freedom of the limbs. No pressure should be permitted on any portion of the body, so that the circulation is not impeded. Displaced organs can result from very tight fitting bands.

The Feet.—The feet should always be protected. I do not approve of hardening infants by exposing their bare legs to the peculiarly changeable climate of our Atlantic coast. I have frequently found digestive disturbances which could be attributed to cold feet.

The usual shoe found in the shops for the new-born infant, as well as the first walking shoe, are simply ornaments and not practical shoes. It is advisable to devote at least enough care to have the shoes made on anatomical lines. The accompanying illustration (Fig. 7) shows the proper shape for the first walking shoe.

The Abdominal Band.—The belly-band is a source of great anxiety to the mother. Its support is valuable for the umbilicus when the child is troubled with constipation or diarrhœa. It is a valuable support for the abdominal muscles if the child is affected with whooping-cough. It is not necessary to wear the band as an abdominal support more than three months. Delicate infants, premature infants, or those suffering with gastro-intestinal disturbances may require a supporting bandage for a much longer time.

Night Clothing.—Due allowance must be made for seasonal changes, so that light clothing should be worn in summer and a heavier set in winter. Restlessness will frequently be induced by having the body too warm.

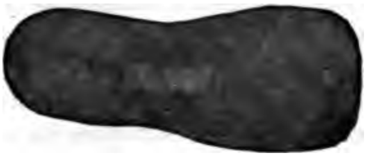

Fig. 7.—Proper-shaped Shoe for Infant.

THE NURSERY.

To develop an infant we require fresh air and sunshine. We must only compare a flower deprived of sunlight and air to that which is developed in ordinary healthful surroundings. An infant should be given the best room in the house, with a southern exposure. The reverse is usually found; infants are put into the smallest room, as though they were in the way. The nursery should be cheerful and sunny, and have a temperature ranging between 66° and 72° F. At night, when the child is well covered, the temperature may be lowered to 60° F. without hurting the infant.

Ventilation.—This is one of the most important matters to be considered during the development of the infant. An infant should invariably be removed from the room in which it has slept, and the windows of the nursery should be opened both top and bottom. After proper ventilation the windows are closed and the infant may be brought back again. The nursery should be ventilated at least two or three times a day.

When to Take an Infant Out of Doors.—An infant one month old should be taken out into the fresh air in summer, sometimes sooner. It is understood that the first few times a child is taken out of doors it should be taken into the sun, if possible, for one or two hours. On rainy days or when it snows I invariably insist on giving the infant air by throwing open the windows and dressing the child with coat and cap as though it were to be taken into the street. This can be done for half an hour in the morning and afternoon.

The Nursemaid.—The selection of a nurse is not an easy matter. That it is an important matter we can see when we consider cases of tuberculosis and syphilis that have been unquestionably transmitted by the nurse to the child. My rule is to exclude a nurse who suffers with catarrh or throat trouble. They are a constant menace to a healthy child. Specific rules should be given by the family physician to each nurse regarding the feeding, bathing, and general hygienic management. I invariably advise against nursemaids kissing children on the mouth. They should never be permitted to sleep in the same bed. I have known more than one case of urogenital discharge transmitted to a female infant in this manner. I prefer a nurse between 20 and 40 years of age, one that is quiet, mild mannered, and that does not "know everything." Experimental feeding, as is frequently tried by that miserable creature known as the "experienced nurse," is responsible for more rickets and weak children than any other method of rearing children. It is the mother's duty to consult the physician at least once a month or oftener regarding details of feeding, etc., and it is the *mother's place to instruct the nurse.* A mother who is dependent on a nurse will find that fact to be a detriment to her child.

Method of Heating.—An open-grate fire or a Franklin radiator afford the best means of heating. Our city apartments in New York are furnished with steam heat, and a great many have gas heating. These latter are the worst forms of heating and are responsible for more catarrhal affections of the air passages than anything else. I invariably advise the use of a kettle with steaming water to add moisture to a room in which a gas stove or steam radiator is found.

The air should be kept as fresh as possible; soiled diapers or soiled clothing should never be dried in the nursery. Smoking in the nursery should not be permitted, and kitchen odors should not be allowed to reach it.

Light at Night.—To insure proper repose there should be no light and no noise in the nursery. With modern conveniences, such as electricity, a small, green, glass bulb can be used when a light is necessary. A wax night candle will answer for all purposes at night if electric light cannot be used.

The Furniture.--The simpler the furniture the better. The ease with which infants and children contract measles, scarlet fever, and diphtheria shows the necessity for plain furniture and no useless overhangings. If the physician will explain to the mother that pathogenic bacteria will remain for months in carpets and rugs and tapestries, she will understand why simpler means are required. It is advisable, if possible, to have a hardwood floor which may be scrubbed thoroughly. All rugs should be aired daily, and it is safer to fumigate the same with formaline when occasion requires.

The Bed and Pillow.—A cradle that can be rocked should never be used for a child. Nothing worse than a feather bed can be imagined; still, I see them frequently. The best thing for an infant to sleep on is a hair mattress, and by all means a hair pillow.

PROPER TRAINING.

From earliest infancy it is advisable to train the baby. It should be given the breast, and after it is through nursing or feeding from the bottle it should be laid in the crib. If this habit is commenced early, a regular habit of resting can be formed. If, on the other hand, we permit the infant to sleep next to its mother's breast, it will get into the habit of being fondled to sleep. Bad habits will compel the mother to be a slave to her child, and wise is she who will accept the honest, well-meant advice of the physician regarding regularity in habits.

Bowels.—An infant nine months old can be put on the commode. The best time for the infant's bowels to move is after the morning bottle. Instruct the mother to place the child on the chair, and if the bowels do not move naturally, assist the same by injecting about two ounces of water to which a few spoonfuls of glycerine have been added. This will aid in directing the infant's attention to its bowels. If the mother will do this regularly every morning the infant will gradually learn to know for what purpose it is placed on the chair.

Bladder.—What is possible with the bowels can be accomplished with the bladder. If the mother or nurse will place the infant on a vessel every three or four hours, the infant will gradually learn to hold its urine until such time. The infant should be placed on the vessel immediately on awakening, be it night or day. Children invariably empty the bladder on awakening.

Hygiene of the Nervous System.—To develop an infant's brain the nervous system requires quiet but cheerful surroundings. Useless excitement is harmful. To take an infant and handle it like a toy is wrong. I have seen infants taken up from a sound sleep to display the "talent" that some one had taught them. Nothing is more harmful than to have the mother compel her infant to display various tricks during its feeding. While this may be a gratification to the friends, it certainly is detrimental to the infant's brain and nervous development.

PHYSICAL EXERCISE.

The health of the infant and child demands exercise. When this is neglected, disease results. Broadly speaking, there are two forms of exercise—active and passive. There are limitations to active exercise. In acute febrile conditions, rest is demanded, and all active exercise contraindicated. At such times, if necessary, massage may take the place of active exercise.

Not only in acute inflammatory conditions, but also in eruptive diseases, no form of active exercise should be allowed. Recognizing the fact that violent exercise results in albuminuria, it is very important for the physician to prescribe exercise and at the same time supervise its effect on the kidneys by examination of the urine. It is important to bear in mind that in chronic kidney disease, as in acute congestion of the kidney, or following scarlet fever or typhoid fever, the resulting strain from violent exercise may do harm.

What has been said concerning the kidney applies even more strongly to the heart. After an attack of scarlet fever or diphtheria, or even after pneumonia or influenza, the effect of the toxin usually weakens the myocardium. Exercise should therefore be prescribed very carefully, and the immediate effect on the heart noted. The effect on the blood-pressure, on the lungs, and on the body is watched, so that no strain is permitted.

If dyspnœa, fatigue, or irregular heart action follows a mild form of exercise, then rest—not activity—is demanded, and here again passive motions aided by massage will be indicated.

It is a well-established fact in physiology that an unused organ does not develop properly; that a period of long disuse leads to atrophy; that regular exercise of an organ leads to its normal development and growth, and that organs that are exercised a great deal are, in most cases, hypertrophied. These structural changes are associated with the anabolic effects of exercise, and are most apparent in the nervous and muscular tissues, in the heart, and in the tendons, ligaments, connective-tissue sheaths, bones, and joints associated with the voluntary musculature. It seems to be true also that, in certain tissues at least, exercise not only increases the size of the individual element (muscle fiber, for instance), but also increases the number of the tissue elements present, so that there are more muscle fibers in the regularly exercised muscle and more nerve cells in the regularly exercised motor center than in those muscles and centers that are not regularly exercised.

Associated with its beneficial influence upon general metabolism, physical exercise causes a general increase in the functional efficiency of the organ. The heart develops a greater strength, regularity, and endurance. Circulatory activities are improved. The depth of inspiration is increased. The rhythm of respiration is slowed. The strength, endurance, and co-ordination of the neuromuscular elements controlling the movements of respiration are improved. The necessary and very intimate co-ordination between the complex respiratory machine, the complex circulatory machine, and the complex vasomotor machine is brought into more perfect adjustment and efficiency. The heat regulation of the body is improved. Digestion, metabolism, and excretion are improved.

The production of active or potential immunity is a function of some of the fixed and circulating cells of the body. When pathogenic organisms within certain limits of virulence gain access to the tissues they are destroyed or rendered innocuous by one or more of several processes. On the cells of the body depends the exhibition of the phenomena of immunity. The degree of immunity produced is related directly to the health of the cell. An impoverished, poorly nourished, unhealthy cell will not react to the same extent and with the same success as will the normal, healthy, well-nourished cell.

The health, and, therefore, the immunity-producing power, of the cell depends upon its nourishment, including food, water, and oxygen; upon its relief from the toxic influence of its own waste products; upon its exercise, upon its opportunities for rest and repair, and upon a reasonable freedom from the direct and indirect influences of pathogenic organisms. The health, and, therefore, the immunity, of the whole body depends upon the health of all its constituent parts—on the health of its cells. If the cells are all well nourished, active, and protected from extremes of pathogenic influences, their summated health will be the health of the individual whose body they in combination make. That such a healthy individual is possessed of a certain degree of immunity has been proven empirically and experimentally, and it is equally well established that the possession and conservation of the healthy body depend upon the observance of several simple hygienic procedures.

The above statements, made by Dr. Thomas A. Story, are founded upon physiological and clinical study. Exercise is demanded in health and is necessary to stimulate metabolism of the food elements, and also to aid in the assimilation of food. External exercises are voluntary and are demanded to stimulate the circulatory, the muscular, and the glandular systems.

The activity of the internal secretions depends on the proper exercise of the body. Lack of exercise and the lack of peristaltic waves are best seen by the resulting constipation.

In health the variety and quantity of exercise indicated depend upon the age, sex, habits, physique, and conditions of the individual. The infant must have freedom for the kicking, squirming, grasping, and twisting movements that develop his musculature, incite and perfect his larger co-ordinations, and stimulate his whole organism to normal functional activity.

The growing child continues these absolutely essential influences through his play, games, and sports, and secures these physiological benefits more or less completely in spite of the restrictions of the home, the school, and urban life.

If the infant is bound fast, he does not grow. If the child is forced to lead an absolutely sedentary or bedridden life, he does not develop.

I am indebted to Dr. Thomas A. Story, Physical Director of the College of the City of New York, for many valuable points in this article.

PART II.

ABNORMALITIES AND DISEASES OF THE NEW-BORN.

CHAPTER I.

PREMATURE INFANTS.

An infant born before 280 days of intrauterine life is called premature. Some authors maintain that infants weighing less than 4 pounds should be considered premature. If the length of the body is less than 19 inches, then we may suspect prematurity. The internal organs, especially the lungs, not being fully developed, we cannot expect normal functions. A premature infant does not cry but whines. There is muscular inertia. The circulation is very poor and there is a subnormal temperature ranging between 88° and 96° F.

Children born at six and a half months have grown up strong at last, although it is not often they survive if born before the seventh month. The great need of such a baby is heat, and the maternity hospitals employ an apparatus, called a *couveuse, brooder*, or *incubator,* especially devised to supply it.

For family use a *couveuse* may be bought at the instrument makers, or hired from some of them. This is perhaps better, as the apparatus is costly. With an increased degree of attention we may get along fairly well without it. If a premature baby is bathed at all after birth, the temperature of the water should be 105° F., and the greatest care should be taken, while drying, to see that the child is not chilled. It should be made very warm by swaddling it in raw cotton, head and all, leaving only the face exposed, wrapping it about with a blanket, and tying it around with a roller bandage. Hot-water bottles should be placed on each side of it as it lies thus wrapped up in its bed, and fresh ones substituted frequently. A very convenient method is to place the child in a baby's bathtub half-full of raw cotton, in which a number of hot bottles have been concealed.

The infant's only clothing consists of a diaper and a shirt. The room should be kept warm, and especially so when this human bundle is unwrapped for its bath. After bathing it should be rubbed with sweet-oil and rolled up again in fresh cotton. Often it is better to omit all bathing, and simply rub with the oil. These premature infants lose considerably more in proportion to their birth weight than babies at term. This is due to their immature digestive tract; also to the fact that they are almost always intensely jaundiced. They gain very slowly; if at the end of two or three weeks they have reached their birth-weight, they have done unusually well.

The incubator here described (see Fig. 8) is the one used at the Sloane Maternity Hospital. There is a great variety of these incubators, but the one made by the Kny-Scheerer Company in New York City will answer all requirements. Owing to its expense, the manufacturers will lend an incubator for a nominal sum per month.

The apparatus is constructed of steel, with glass doors and one glass window on the side for feeding purposes, etc.

The heat is generated by electricity and can be regulated to any desired temperature. The electric thermostat is suspended from the ceiling of the chamber. At its left end is a thumbscrew, which regulates the amount of heat. Underneath the cradle and above the heater is a water pan, which should be well filled with water. This is to supply moisture to the air in the apparatus, the amount of which is recorded by the hygrometer attached to the rear wall. The air supplied to the infant is filtered through an absorbent cotton filter. This air can be taken from the room in which the apparatus is placed, or directly from the outside by means of simple tubes. The revolving wheel in the chimney indicates the perfect circulation of the air. This apparatus can also be supplied with a gas heat-generator, the electric being preferred in order to minimize the contamination of the air.

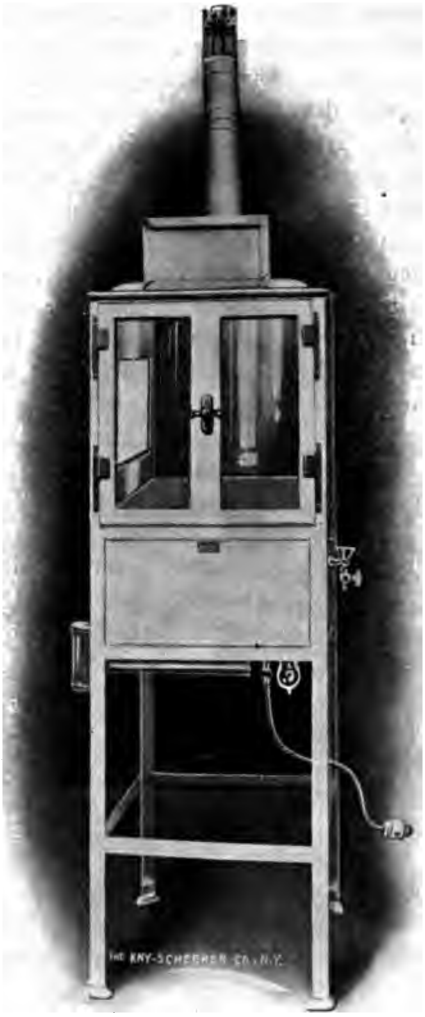

Fig. 8.—Incubator made by the Kny-Scheerer Company, New York.

In some of the babies the color is poor from the beginning, and at any time they are liable to attacks of cyanosis. For these conditions a little slapping to cause a good cry or the administration of oxygen will dissipate the blueness. Often a few drops of brandy in water given every two or three hours will prevent further trouble. One must be very sure, however, that nothing has been aspirated into the larynx (Griffith).

A great danger in the care of these babies is their susceptibility to infections. The incubator itself is a great germ carrier and should be regularly disinfected. The weakness of the lungs and gastro-enteric tract makes the infant especially vulnerable. Unless the air is filtered, dirt is carried in continuously; consequently, the streptococcus, staphylococcus, and pneumococcus are always present, seeking an avenue of entrance, through the skin in eczematous spots or in areas of irritation, at the navel, through the eyes, nose, mouth, larynx, lungs, stomach, and rectum, the bacteria can gain admission. To prevent infection the most careful cleansing is necessary, of both the incubator and the baby. Undoubtedly most of the deaths of our cases could be traced to this source.

A Danger of Incubators.—An infant placed in an incubator was found dead one morning, suffocated by vomited milk drawn into the lungs. To prevent this catastrophe Wormser suggests that infants should not be replaced in the incubator until a certain interval has elapsed after feeding. E. Wormser (*Centralblatt f. Gynäkologie,* No. 38).

Finally, in the carrying out of the above essentials in the proper management of the premature infant, we require the most patient and painstaking attention on the part of the nurse, and upon her conscientiousness depends the chance of its survival.

RESULTS.

The statistics are taken from 2314 births which occurred at the Sloane Maternity Hospital.

Four hundred and ten of these babies were premature, but of these 74 were stillbirths, which include macerated fetuses and stillborn cases of placenta prævia, accidental hæmorrhage, eclampsia, and the like, leaving 336 for treatment.

Among these cases was a set of triplets, and there were 18 pairs of twins; 85 were treated as infants at term, and of these 4 died—a mortality of 4¼ per cent.; 115 were put in cotton, and of these 12 died—a mortality of 8 per cent. Some of this class should have been placed in the incubator, but for lack of room it was impossible; 106 were incubator babies.

These are divided into two classes:—

1. Those that died within 4 days after birth.
2. Those that lived longer than 4 days.

Twenty-nine of the incubator babies died within 4 days. All of these were more or less asphyxiated at birth; 9 were breech cases, and of these 5 were difficult extractions; 3 after an *accouchement forcé in placenta prævia.* The rest were vertex presentations, and of these 2 were forceps deliveries; 6 were under 7 months of uterine gestation; 22 were between 7 and 8 months, and 1, 8¼ months.

The etiology of the premature labor was an endometritis in 14; syphilis in 2; albuminuria in 1; placenta prævia in 3; accidental hæmorrhage in 1; persistent vomiting in 1; twin in 1; violence in 1, and in 4 the labor was induced. The largest baby weighed 5⅛ pounds; the smallest 2 7/16 pounds. Only 5 infants lived over 24 hours; 24 were in such poor condition at birth that they survived only a few hours. In 16, autopsies were held, and in all of these there was marked atelectasis; in 7 there were hæmorrhages of some degree, either into the brain or into the serous membranes; in 2 the foramen ovale was still patent.

Seventy-seven incubator infants survived the first 4 days; 51 were children of primiparæ, 27 of whom were out of wedlock; 3 infants were under 7 months of gestation; 8 were over 8 months; 9 were breech presentations; 1 a transverse, and the rest vertices; 2 were of triplets associated with albuminuria; 18 were in twin deliveries associated with albuminuria or hydramnios. The cause of the premature labor was endometritis in 27; syphilis in 4; phthisis in 2; albuminuria in 7; accidental hæmorrhage in 1; placenta prævia in 1; in 2 the labor was induced for albuminuria and eclampsia; 1 was a Cæsarean section; another an ectopic gestation by a laparotomy; 12 were slightly asphyxiated at birth, 9 moderately so, and 5 deeply asphyxiated; 2, after one and one-half hours' work of resuscitation, were put in the incubator head downward, and their condition was so poor that they were not expected to live, but they left the hospital gaining in weight; 5 weighed less than 3 pounds; 38 between 3 and 4 pounds; 33 between 4 and 5 pounds; 1 over 5 pounds; the average weight was 3¾ pounds. During their incubator life 28 had one or more attacks of atelectasis. All but 10 were more or less jaundiced. The initial loss of the infants was from 1 to 17½ ounces; the average was 7 ounces.

These figures are not quite correct, as the babies were weighed at different intervals, some on the fifth day, some on the seventh day, and some not until the fourteenth day.

The period of loss was from 5 to 22 days; the average 11 days; 10 lost steadily until death; 1 baby was in the incubator only 3 days, while another lived there 82 days. The average time was 19 days. Some were removed early to make room for others who needed the place more urgently.

Only 3 of the 77 cases vomited. The stools were normal in 32.

One was discharged from the hospital as early as the eleventh day, and others, also, too soon at their mothers' demand. One was 89 days old; the average was 24 days.

In 16, diluted breast-milk was supplemented at times with a mixture of cows' milk and water, with Russian gelatine and lactose. In 10, a 1, 6, 0.33[1] modification was used. In all the rest diluted breast-milk was relied upon. Twenty-seven never nursed at the breast; of these 12 died. A few nursed as early as the third or fourth day two or three times daily; others not for three weeks, and 1 not till the sixty-eighth day. Of the 77, 13 died in the hospital—a mortality of 16 per cent. The cause of death was atelectasis and bronchitis in 7; acute asphyxia from a curd in the larynx in 1; syphilitic pneumonia in 1; cerebral hæmorrhage in 1; gastro-enteritis in 3, and a patent foramen ovale and ductus arteriosus in 1. The condition of 3 was poor at the time of discharge, fair in 24, and very good in 37; 32 were above their birth-weights, and 57 were gaining in weight. To letters written about January 1, 1900, no answer was obtained from 28. Thirteen were reported as having died; 1 of these lived 14 months; 1 lived 4½ months; 3 lived 2 months; 6 lived 6 weeks; 1 only a month. Five of these died at the Nursery and Child's Hospital, and 2 died at Bellevue Hospital. They were bottle-fed, and the probable cause of death was gastro-enteritis.

Twenty-one were found to be alive and doing well. Some had nursed, and the others were bottle-fed. The oldest baby was 22 months, and almost all were good, healthy children. One baby at 7 months weighed 16 pounds. It weighed 4¹⁄₁₆ pounds at birth, and nursed from its mother after leaving the hospital. The ectopic and the Cæsarean babies were in beautiful condition.

TABLE No. 7.

Incubators.	Tarnier. Per Cent.	Charles. Per Cent.	Sloane Hospital. Per Cent.	At the Sloane Hospital. Not Counting Those which Died in a Few Hours. Per Cent.
Saved at 6 months......	16	10		
Saved at 6½ months......	36	20	22	66
Saved at 7 months......	49	40	41	71
Saved at 7½ months......	77	75	75	89
Saved at 8 months......	88		70	91

METHOD OF FEEDING.

The size of the child precludes the taking of an ordinary nipple; hence, various measures have been tried, the most successful of which has been, according to the author's experience, feeding with Dr. Breck's feeder for premature infants (see Fig. 9). Feed at intervals of one hour, the quantity varying with the age of the infant

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[1] Fat, 1; sugar, 6; proteins, 0.33.

A prematurely born baby is certainly doomed without proper food, and there are so many other factors to be considered during its life in an incubator, such as ventilation, its bodily warmth and cleanliness, that too much stress cannot be laid on the value of its food. *Without breast-milk*, therefore, I feel justified in saying: *I have yet to see the premature infant that will survive*, and hence I advise *procuring breast-milk*, containing no colostrum-corpuscles, but from a woman having a child anywhere between two weeks to several months old, and *diluting this breast-milk*, as stated above, with a solution of milk sugar or cane sugar.

Voorhees[1] says: "Regarding the care of premature babies in incubators, we have relied mainly on diluted breast-milk, and have only employed diluted cows' milk in weak proportions when it was impossible to obtain the former. In our opinion our results would have been much poorer without the help of mothers' milk."

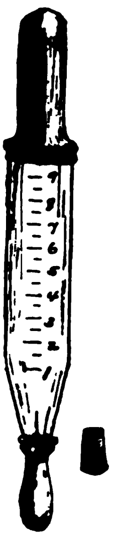

Fig. 9.—Dr. Breck's Feeder for Premature Babies. Can be made with a medicine dropper to which a nipple is attached.

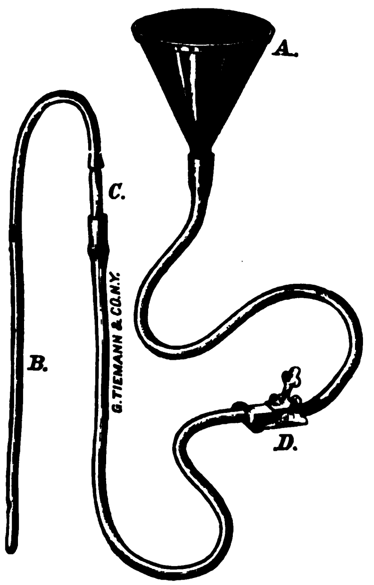

Fig. 10.—(*a*) Funnel. (*b*) Rubber Catheter. (*c*) Glass Connecting Tube. (*d*) Rubber Tube and Stopcock.

In rare instances, when infants are very weak and seem to doze and will not swallow, they should be fed with a No. 8 American (Tiemann & Co.) rubber catheter attached to a rubber tube about one foot in length and ending in a funnel. (See Fig. 10.)

Very small quantities of food should be used in gavage-feedings of the mouth or when feeding through the nose. No more than 4 to 6 drachms should be used, and thus we can feel our way. It is a good point to remember that the pharynx being very sensitive, the irritation of the tube passing into the stomach may provoke regurgitation of some of this food, and frequently vomiting will be produced.

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[1] Archives of Pediatrics, May, 1900.

Baby M., born March 31, 1909, was sent by Dr. I. L. Hill to my service in the Babies' Wards of the Sydenham Hospital. The weight at birth was five pounds two ounces. The feeding consisted of mother's milk three drachms diluted with barley water three drachms. On April 2d, when three days old, the weight was five pounds. The infant could not retain the diluted human milk, there was considerable projectile vomiting. Condensed milk was then given. Condensed milk 1/2 drachm to two ounces of sterile water. One-half ounce was given at each feeding. This food was retained but the infant emaciated and its lowest weight was four pounds. Gavage was resorted to at every other feeding. The vomiting became less and the weight increased, the infant gaining slowly. The extremities were cold. The infant was cyanosed and was placed in an incubator. It then weighed four pounds four ounces. As the weight remained stationary for one week, the condensed milk feeding was discontinued and two drachms of the following formula were given: Cows' milk, 30.0; barley water, 50.0; peptogenic milk powder, 1/2 measure.

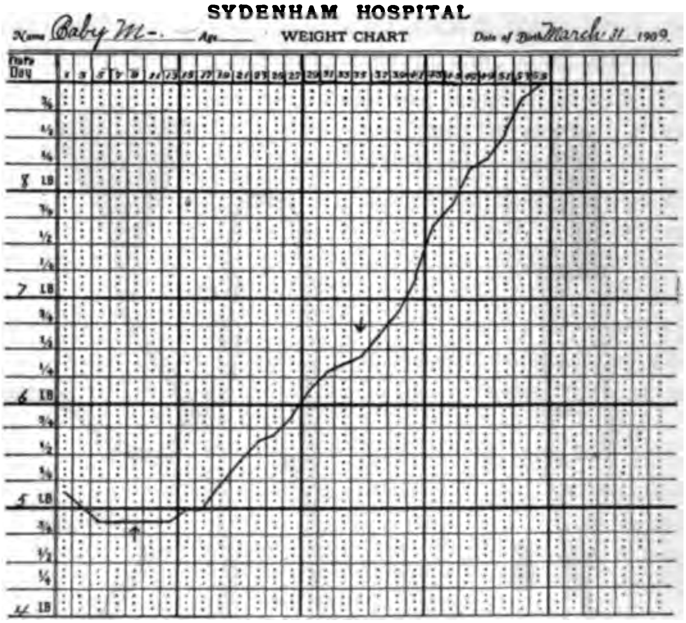

Fig. 11.—Birth: ↑Placed in Incubator; ↓Removed from Incubator.

The infant gained rapidly, vomited less, and slept longer. Whenever possible we procured woman's milk and substituted it for the cows' milk feeding. The infant remained in the incubator twenty-seven days, and was removed weighing six pounds seven ounces.

The Stool.—From meconium at birth, the stool gradually become a grass-green, jelly-like mass; later it was a yellowish-green, saponified stool. The first three weeks the infant was constipated. This constipation later improved so that the stool was softer, pasty in consistency, and yellowish or yellowish-green in color. The infant grew and developed and was discharged in June, 1909, weighing eleven pounds.

Serum Injections.—The subcutaneous injection of sterile horse serum was commenced with the idea of promoting nutrition. About 15 cubic centimeters were injected into the loose cellular tissue of the abdomen, and, when it was found that it was completely absorbed, a daily injection of 15 cubic centimeters was ordered. Later 30 cubic centimeters were injected and absorbed. No febrile reaction followed such injection. Although many dozens of these injections were given, with the usual aseptic precautions, not once did an abscess or other sign of infection occur.

The gradual daily increase in weight was attributed in some measure to this mode of treatment.

Since my last edition appeared, I have had excellent results with artificial feeding, having saved five premature infants out of six. The feeding was identical with case above described. Another successful premature case is described in the article on "Caloric Feeding."

A close study of the details required in the successful rearing of undersized infants shows that the following points are helpful:—

1. Vomiting, if present after feeding, means longer interval between meals.

2. An undeveloped and weak infant taking but several drachms from a medicine dropper will be better fed by gavage. Most of my success has been due to gavage at regular intervals night and day.

3. The temperature of the infant is usually subnormal. In addition to placing the infant in an incubator, I have its body well oiled, especially the feet, and the infant wrapped in cotton. The heat of the incubator produces dryness of the mouth and lips, therefore water is given frequently by spoon or medicine dropper.

4. To aid metabolism and to assist the bowels, an injection of a tablespoonful of warm sweet oil into the rectum helps to move the bowels. The weight should be taken daily, and it is important to increase the percentage composition of the food until the infant gains in weight.

5. The great danger of exposure prohibits the daily bath, hence the infant should be cleansed by inunctions with warm oil.

The Incubator.—The strict supervision of an incubator demands two trained nurses. The heat must be regulated. The thermometer on the inside of the incubator must frequently be observed and the moisture properly regulated, so that the air in the incubator is not too dry.

As a rule, an incubator infant, if otherwise healthy, shows restlessness when its feeding time arrives. The infant is taken from the incubator, the doors of the incubator are closed to retain the heat, the infant is rapidly fed by gavage or the feeder, and returned to the incubator.

CHAPTER II.

PROPHYLAXIS AND TREATMENT OF THE EYES IN THE NEW-BORN.

THE vaginal discharge of a pregnant woman contains pathogenic bacteria. This frequently gives rise to an infectious catarrh in the new-born. It is therefore important to treat the eye of the new-born baby with extreme care to prevent an infection which can produce serious results.

TREATMENT OF THE EYES IN THE NEW-BORN.

Ordinarily the eyes should be washed with a pledget of sterilized cotton dipped in plain sterile water or a 2 per cent. boric acid solution. The mouth and nose should be similarly treated. All cotton used for the hygiene of the mouth, nose, and eyes should be burned immediately after use.

Credé advises the use of a 1 per cent. solution of nitrate of silver. One drop (no more than one drop) is allowed to drop from a solid glass rod or a medicine dropper on the center of the cornea. Its object is to prevent the infant from acquiring ophthalmia neonatorum.

The prophylaxis of blindness is worth studying. The New York Association for the Blind reports many cases "of needlessly blind victims of ophthalmia neonatorum." The official census of the blind for the State of New York for 1906 gives a total of 6200, out of which number 1984 were preventable blindness, most of them caused by ophthalmia neonatorum.

Garrigues[1] states that in lying-in asylums before this treatment was adopted, purulent ophthalmia was very prevalent.

Statistics show that one-half to two-thirds of those affected with blindness lost their sight from this cause.

When the frequency of the gonococcus in the vaginal secretions of women delivered in lying-in asylums is considered, then the wisdom of prophylaxis cannot be questioned.

Of late protargol (10 per cent. solution) has been substituted for the nitrate of silver solution. It is just as effective and less irritating.

Solution argyrol (20 per cent.) is very useful in the catarrhal affections of infants and children. I have seen very good results during my service at the Willard Parker Hospital with the same.[2]

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[1] Henry J. Garrigues: "Textbook of Obstetrics," 1902.

[2] See also Part X, "Diseases of the Eye."

CHAPTER III.

DISEASES AND MALFORMATIONS OF THE UMBILICUS.

GRANULOMA.

A MASS of fungus or exuberant granulations is frequently found in the umbilicus. Sometimes the granuloma resembles a large red bead. It is usually seen after the cord has separated. A discharge usually oozes. These granulations bleed very easily.

Treatment.—The application of a solid stick of nitrate of silver to thoroughly destroy the granulations is usually all that is required. If these granulations persist then the same can be removed with the aid of a sharp curette by simple scraping, after which a dusting powder like europhen should be used.

DIPHTHERITIC OMPHALITIS.

The new-born baby is occasionally infected with diphtheria. If there is an omphalitis the Klebs-Loeffler infection can easily be transmitted. The following case was seen by me in consultation:—

A child 4 years old suffered with diphtheria of the upper air passages, which finally spread to the larynx, necessitating intubation. This family lived in a crowded apartment. The mother gave birth to an infant five days later, and was herself infected with diphtheria of the vagina and vulva. Her new-born baby was about six days old when I first saw it. The umbilical cord had just sloughed away. The region of the umbilicus was highly inflamed and covered with thick pseudo-membranes. The child died on the eleventh day, of septicæmia. A culture taken showed Klebs-Loeffler bacilli. The physician that attended this family told me that the *nurse in charge of the older child with laryngeal diphtheria also nursed* the mother and the new-born baby. He believed that the infection was undoubtedly carried by the nurse.

Treatment.—Locally bichloride of mercury, 1 to 2000, applied constantly. Internally, antitoxin. (See chapter on "Diphtheria.") A case of this kind requires the same vigorous treatment as any other case of diphtheria.

THE DANGERS INCIDENT TO CARELESSNESS IN HANDLING THE NAVEL.

If through some accident the ligatures around the umbilical cord should slip, and blood oozes from the wound, fatal hæmorrhage can result. The attention of the physician should at once be directed to this condition. This can become a very serious matter if neglected; hence it is of the utmost importance to remedy it at once. The neglect of such things, besides the improper bandaging or uncleanliness in this region, is liable to cause not only convulsions, but blood poisoning and death.

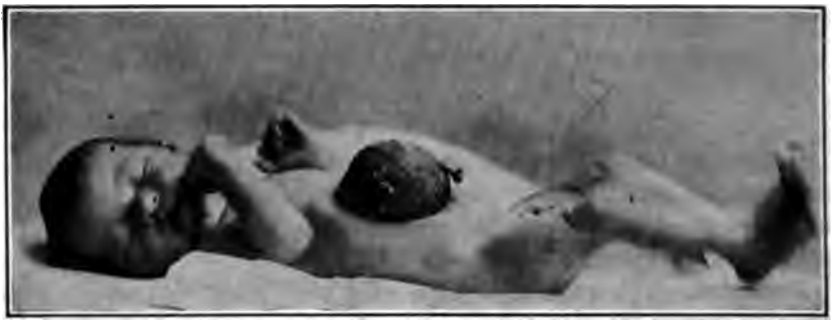

Fig. 12.—Case of Omphalocele admitted to the Babies' Wards of the Sydenham Hospital. A semi-globular tumor 4 inches in diameter, and 2½ inches above level of the body. The stump of the umbilical cord is seen on the left side of the tumor. Sterile gauze dressings were applied. After several weeks the mass gradually sloughed off and the wound closed. (Original.)

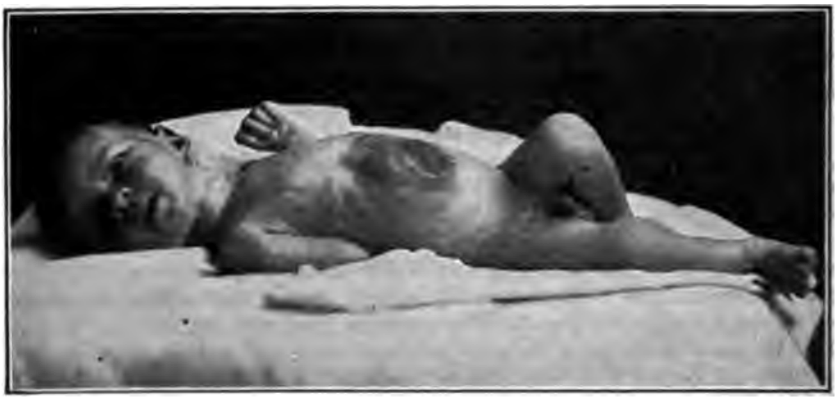

Fig. 13.—Appearance of abdomen four weeks after treatment. Case was discharged cured when six weeks old. (Original.)

SEPTIC OMPHALITIS.

An infant was seen by me, through the courtesy of Dr. S. Straus, in this city during the summer of 1902. *History*, as follows:—

It was the first child born; no previous miscarriage; family history excellent; no history of syphilis; labor was easy, and baby was born in natural manner. The mother was in excellent health; had milk in both breasts; normal temperature. Asepsis was thoroughly carried out. The infant had a temperature of 103° F., in the rectum, slight gastroenteric complication, greenish, colicky stools; the umbilicus was inflamed and excoriated; slight evidence of pus.

Diagnosis.—Septic omphalitis due, probably, to infection by the nurse with unclean hands while dressing the umbilicus.

Treatment.—Strict asepsis to be followed. The umbilicus to be washed with

1 to 2000 bichloride of mercury. Sterile gauze and aristol or some drying powder applied. The stomach and bowels were cleansed with calomel, and the infant fed every two hours at its mother's breast. The child made an excellent recovery in about four or five days.

Meckel's Diverticulum.

A condition which may at first simulate umbilical polypus, and for which umbilical polypus may be a symptom, is the persistence of a Meckel diverticulum. This consists of the persistence of a piece of intestine, usually patent, connecting the small intestine with the umbilicus. It represents a vitelline duct that failed to atrophy when the placental circulation became established, and betrays its presence by an escape of fæces from the umbilicus. It is a rare malformation (Rotch).

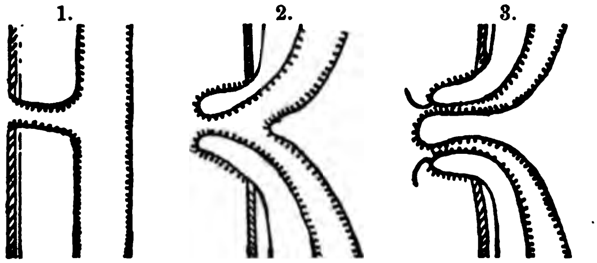

Fig. 14.—Illustrating Effects of the Persistence of the Omphalomesenteric Duct and Formation of the So-called Diverticulum Tumor (Riesman).

1. The omphalomesenteric duct shown as an opening leading from the umbilicus to the ilium. 2. Showing a small portion of the proximal intestinal wall. This may happen in a constipated child, while straining at stool. The same condition may occur during a paroxysm of whooping-cough. 3. The tumor is much larger, frequently sausage-shaped. It is irreducible.

Congenital Obliteration of the Bile-ducts.

This condition has been carefully studied by John Thomson, of Edinburgh. He has tabulated his studies in his book on "Congenital Obliteration of the Bile-ducts," 1892.

Etiology.—There can be no doubt that various malformations of the liver and bile-ducts do occur which are certainly of this nature. For example, congenital absence of the gall-bladder has been frequently described, and some of the cases were due to arrest of development, although many were probably of inflammatory origin. Wenzel Gruber has published a case in which a forked cystic duct was found, and Konitzky has described another in which the common duct had an unusually long and curved course, and opened into the middle of the horizontal portion of the duodenum, its lumen being narrowed. O. Witzel also has published notes of an infant born with a large number of congenital abnormalities, in whom, in addition to hemicephalus, situs viscerum inversus, six fingers on each hand, etc., there was a cystic condition of the liver and complete impermeability of both the cystic and common ducts. Other developmental defects have been observed, namely, in Heschl's absence of the bile-ducts in the liver-tissue, and in Professor Simpson's want of the spigelian and quadrate lobes.

The frequency with which this exceedingly rare condition affects several members of the same family is very strongly in favor of this view, and, indeed, it seems difficult to explain it otherwise. It has been suggested that this reappearance of the disease in the same family might be explained by supposing a common syphilitic taint. This suggestion, however, cannot be accepted, for we never find a tendency for an extremely rare manifestation of syphilis to recur four or five times in a family without any of the common symptoms of that disease being present at the same time.

Pathology.—The liver is usually found much enlarged, of a very tough consistency—due to biliary cirrhosis—and of a dark green color, owing to the presence of numerous masses of inspissated bile in the small bile-ducts. In the great majority of cases there is complete obliteration of some part or parts of the hepatic, common or cystic ducts, or of the gall-bladder, while with very few exceptions, implication of the blood-vessels or other tubes in the neighborhood is conspicuous by its absence.

Pathology of the Lesion of the Ducts.—The lesion has been ascribed to three different morbid processes, either acting separately or in combination, namely:—

1. *Peritonitis and its results,* acting on the ducts from outside, and either compressing them or being a source of inflammatory action, which spreads afterward to their walls.
2. *An inflammatory or other lesion of the ducts themselves.*
3. *An arrest or defect of development.*

And further, various predisposing causes have been described as accounting for these morbid processes, namely:—

1. *Congenital syphilis.*
2. *Digestive disturbance on the part of the parents.*
3. *Injuries or exposure to cold,* either of the mother or child.
4. *Erysipelas* of the child.

Symptoms.—Such children are jaundiced at birth or they become so within the first week or two of life; otherwise they are healthy and well-nourished. In some cases there is meconium followed by colorless motions; in others the fæces are devoid of color from the very first. The urine is deeply bile-stained. The jaundice is of a dark greenish tinge, and lasts till death, and the motions remain colorless. A certain proportion of the children die from umbilical hæmorrhage within the first fortnight, and, of those who survive this period, a large number suffer from spontaneous hæmorrhage from other situations. The liver steadily enlarges, and the spleen also. After living some months the children become more or less emaciated. Spasms often supervene, and death ensues in the end in a state of exhaustion from some trifling intercurrent disease.

CHAPTER IV.

HÆMORRHAGIC DISEASES OF THE NEW-BORN.

SPONTANEOUS HÆMORRHAGE.

THE occurrence of spontaneous hæmorrhages is one of the most characteristic clinical features in these cases. In the cases collected by Thomson, in 21 out of the 50—that is, in almost half of the cases which lived more than a few days—the fact of hæmorrhages having occurred from some part of the body is noted, and in all probability it may have occurred in some of the others also, although not mentioned, as the records of many of them are so meager.

The situations of the hæmorrhages mentioned in Thomson's collection are as follows:—

Subcutaneous	in 7 of the cases.
Subconjunctival	in 1 of the cases.
Umbilical	in 6 of the cases.
From nose	in 2 of the cases.
Vomited	in 4 of the cases.
From bowel	in 8 of the cases.
From mouth	in 1 of the cases.
From lung	in 1 of the cases.
Into gall-bladder	in 1 of the cases.
From leech-bite (excessive)	in 1 of the cases.

A tendency to bleed is found in many children. In the preceding chapter I have described hæmorrhage as a symptom of congenital obliteration of the bile-ducts.[1] I have also described a very serious hæmorrhage in a case of congenital syphilis (see chapter on "Syphilis") which ended fatally. Direct infection through the umbilical vessels is a frequent cause of pyæmia, and this same can result in hæmorrhage.

Etiology.—Ritter[2] studied 190 cases. Of these, 24 were associated with sepsis. Kilham and Mercelis[3] describe hæmorrhages in 10 cases out of 54. It seemed that these were all due to one and the same pyogenic infection.

Gaertner[4] describes a short bacillus which he isolated from two cases resembling the colon bacillus. When the same was injected into the peritoneum of animals, a disease was produced accompanied by hæmorrhage similar to that seen in the new-born. Holt describes a case in which cultures were taken by Dr. J. J. Mapes from which a bacillus resembling that described by Gaertner was isolated. The absence of a sufficient quantity of calcium in the blood was supposed to be the prime cause of hæmorrhage. This has been disproven by the recent work of Addis.[1] Sahli and more recently Morawitz and Lossen have shown that the disease hemophilia may be due to deficiency of thrombokinase.

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[1] Read article on "Hæmorrhages in Congenital Obliteration of the Bile-duct," page 35.

[2] Oest. Jahrbuch für Pediatrik, 1871, p. 127.

[3] Archives of Pediatrics, March, 1899.

[4] Archiv für Kinderheilkunde, 1895.

Pathology.—Small or large extravasations of blood may be found upon the various internal organs affected. The brain, the thymus gland, the stomach, the bowels, the pericardium, the pleura, and peritoneum may have ecchymoses upon their surfaces. A frequent source of hæmorrhage is the presence of ulcers. Gastric and intestinal ulcers are by no means rare.

Symptoms.—The first symptom noticed is the presence of blood. This may be present in the vomit, in the stool, or in the urine. There may be an oozing beneath the skin or from the umbilicus.. The bleeding does not amount to a very large quantity. The infant is usually very anæmic. The pulse is small and feeble. The body is emaciated. The temperature fluctuates; as a rule, it is subnormal, although it may be very high. The course of the disease is short; the bleeding usually ceases in a few days.

UMBILICAL HÆMORRHAGE.

Improper tying of the ligature around the umbilical cord or traumatism frequently causes a slight oozing. These oozings are very easily controlled by the application of a proper-fitting ligature. When, however, a spontaneous hæmorrhage occurs it may be impossible to arrest the same with ordinary means. In these cases the hæmorrhage occurs without previous warning. As a rule, the umbilicus has been perfectly normal for a few days prior to this hæmorrhage. Some authors state that it may be fatal in less than twenty-four hours.

HÆMOGLOBINURIA NEONATORUM (WINCKEL'S DISEASE).

Considerable has been written upon this obscure condition, which is very rarely met with in the new-born baby. As a rule, this condition is seen as an epidemic in a maternity hospital. Winckel reports 19 deaths out of 23 cases.

Pathology.—Hæmorrhages are found in various organs. The lungs are black. The bladder, the spinal canal, the liver, and the spleen all show darkened secretions. The kidneys are dark colored. All observers state that the umbilical vessels are not involved.

Symptoms.—The skin of the body has a peculiar icteric or bronzed appearance. The palms of the hands and soles of the feet have a bluish or purplish color. The conjunctiva has an icteric appearance. The stool is blackish or greenish. The urine is dark and contains blood; it is thick and sometimes resembles syrup. There is no fever. The pulse is very rapid. Convulsions and squinting are usually seen. There is a rapid diminution in the blood cells, from 5,700,000 one day to 3,400,000 on the third day.

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[1] Quarterly Jour. of Medicine, Jan., 1909.

These cases end fatally, as a rule.

ACUTE FATTY DEGENERATION OF THE NEW-BORN (BUHL'S DISEASE).

When an infant is born in an asphyxiated condition and there is associated umbilical hæmorrhage, then an infection of pathogenic bacteria may take place. In some respects this disease resembles Winckel's disease. In both we have hæmorrhages as well as fatty degeneration of the internal organs. The symptoms are a bleeding from the stomach and bowels, associated with jaundice. In Buhl's disease we have bleeding from the umbilicus.

GASTRO-INTESTINAL HÆMORRHAGE (MELÆNA).

Dark-colored, tarry stools are the usual symptoms of melæna. The black stool may also contain clots of blood. A crucial test for the presence of blood in examining the fæces for the presence of blood-corpuscles is the microscope. Normally, meconium does not contain blood. Another symptom is the vomiting of dark-brown liquids; occasionally bright-red blood may be present.

Hæmorrhages of the mouth and nose are generally due to syphilis, although ulcerative conditions may cause local hæmorrhage. When pemphigus or furunculosis is present, hæmorrhages frequently occur. Hæmorrhage from the female genital organs may occur as well as from any other part of the body. They are usually associated with catarrhal inflammation of those parts.

Diagnosis.—This is usually very easy, especially if the bleeding is superficial. The diagnosis is difficult when an obscure place like the intestine is the source of the hæmorrhage. The microscope will usually aid in establishing a diagnosis of blood in the excreta. When the bleeding is confined to the mouth and nose, syphilis should be suspected.

Prognosis.—A careful prognosis should always be given, although the disease is not necessarily fatal. Townsend studied 709 cases and recorded a mortality of 79 per cent.

A male infant, six days old, was seen by me through the courtesy of Dr. A. Goldwater. The child had vomited several times. The vomit contained blood of a bright-scarlet color. The stool had been yellowish, but now is black and tarry. There was a slight oozing of blood from the umbilicus. When I applied some absorbent cotton to the umbilical stump, bright-scarlet blood was seen. The infant was well nourished and was nursed by its mother. The diagnosis of melæna neonatorum was made by the attending physician and I agreed in the diagnosis.

The treatment consisted in the application of a solid stick of nitrate of silver to the umbilicus, and strict aseptic dressing. The hæmorrhages were probably due to pyogenic infection.

Treatment.—Umbilical hæmorrhage can best be controlled, as above cited, by the application of a solid stick of nitrate of silver followed by a dusting powder, such as:—

℞ Europhen,
  Alum usta .... āā ʒij, or 8.0
Sig.: Dust over umbilicus.

For the control of intestinal hæmorrhage astringent injections are not to be relied upon. The suprarenal extract is a very good hæmostatic. I have frequently used very small doses of hydrastine hydrochlorate, $^{1}/_{50}$ to $^{1}/_{100}$ grain, three times a day, or ¼ to ½ grain suprarenal extract, repeated every hour.

The injection of 15 cubic centimeters to 30 cubic centimeters of sterile horse serum is an excellent hæmostatic. In the case of a "bleeder" recently seen by me in the Babies' Wards of the Sydenham Hospital, one injection of horse serum controlled the hæmorrhage, due to a paracentesis, after all local means failed.

If bleeding continues in spite of the injection of horse serum, an injection of 15 to 30 cubic centimeters of human blood serum may be tried. If the latter fails we should resort to transfusion. Transfusion has been recommended by Lambert in hæmorrhage of the new-born.

CHAPTER V.

INJURIES OF THE NEW-BORN.

FRACTURES.

TRAUMATISM during labor is the cause of most fractures in the new-born baby. A predisposition may exist, due to defective ossification. When the skeleton is not properly developed, then a separation of the epiphyses of the long bones rather than an actual solution of continuity of the diapheses occurs (Ballantyne).

This author also doubts the osteomalacic nature of fractures. Antenatal fragility seems to exist by direct heredity. Griffith reports seventeen fractures occurring in one case[1] during the first two years of an infant's life. Thus we can see that there must be some other factor at work permitting recurring fractures, rather than invariably traumatism.

It is true that syphilis has frequently been given as a possible cause for a weak-boned skeleton.

Brittle bones have been attributed to rickets. Prenatal disease on the part of the infant or its mother is frequently the cause of fracture. Linck[2] describes a case of an infant that was born in little more than one pain. In this case there was found over thirty fractures in the limbs and ribs.

Most of the fractures seen are of the "green-stick" variety. The prognosis in these cases is usually good, unless some complication appears.

The following case was seen by me in consultation with Dr. A. S. Bienenstock, of New York:—

An infant two days old had a fracture of the humerus. The seat of the fracture was in the center of the bone, and not near the epiphysis.

Mother's History.—The mother of the infant suffered with diabetes for the previous eight years, having between 4 and 4.5 per cent. of sugar. During the latter months of pregnancy she was in a subnormal condition. The labor was dry, and quite some skill was required to deliver the infant. The mother had no breast-milk, so artificial feeding was resorted to.

As this was in midsummer the infant soon became dyspeptic and later developed entero-colitis. At the seat of the fracture callus could be felt several days after I first saw this infant. Death resulted from summer complaint.

OBSTETRICAL PARALYSIS (ERB'S PARALYSIS OR BIRTH PALSY).

This condition may be seen soon after birth, or it may not be noticed for several days after that event. It is a peripheral paralysis and usually involves the deltoid, biceps, brachialis anticus, supraspinatus, infraspinatus, and supinator longus muscles. It may also involve the extensor muscles of the wrist.

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[1] American Journal of the Medical Sciences, Chap. CXIII, p. 426, 1897.

[2] Arch. of Gynæk., xxx, 264, 1887.

Symptoms.—The arm hangs limp at the side of the body. The position is governed by gravitation. The forearm is extended and pronated, and the wrist and fingers flexed. Movement does not cause pain. The reaction of degeneration can be demonstrated when the paralyzed muscles are examined with the electric current. Such examinations are very difficult in infants having a thick layer of fat. At times very powerful currents are necessary, thus provoking pain. In making an electrical test, the normal arm should always be compared with the affected arm.

Erb demonstrated the fact that "it is possible by a careful examination to find a spot two centimeters above the clavicle, back of the outer edge of the sternomastoid muscle, corresponding to the point of emergence of the sixth cervical nerve between the scaleni, at which point irritation by the faradic current will produce a contraction in the deltoid, biceps, brachialis anticus, and supinator longus muscles; and if the irritation be increased, the extensors of the wrist will also contract. Pressure upon this particular region is often made during delivery, either by the clavicle, or by forceps, or by the fingers of the obstetrician. This is more common when there is a breech presentation and the after-coming head is extracted in the common method. The index and middle fingers of the left hand being open like a fork over the shoulders of the child, traction is commonly made upon the shoulders, and the pressure of the obstetrician's finger in the neck often produces injury of the plexus. In some cases injury of the plexus is produced by attempts to bring down the hand or arm in breech presentations, or to replace these when the head presents. Forceps applications in an awkward position may also produce this injury."

Prognosis.—This depends on the time when the treatment is commenced. As a rule paralysis of the upper-arm type remains three or four years. In a case of mine seen recently the paralysis remained until the child was 5 years old. When the faradic current is applied and the muscles respond, then the prognosis is good; if there is no response, a cautious prognosis should be given.

Treatment.--The arm should be supported with a sling. Massage aided by a faradic current is sometimes beneficial. In severe cases it is better to use the galvanic current, using the mildest current that will produce contraction of the muscles. If the child is old enough to be instructed, gymnastics should be tried at home daily. Strychnine may be given three times a day.

CHAPTER VI.

ASPHYXIA NEONATORUM (APPARENT DEATH OF THE NEW-BORN).

THE center and regulator of the respiratory movements is located in the medulla oblongata. From it also is sent the motor impulse which gives rise to the first act of respiration.

The activity of this center is believed to be augmented by the condition of the venosity of the blood; therefore, all interruptions to placental respiration—for instance the premature detachment of that organ or the compression of the cord—and all obstacles to the introduction of air into the trachea, such as mucus or blood, will be attended with violent motor impulses: first, efforts to breathe, and later, convulsive movements producing death (Boisliniere).

There are two forms of this condition usually observed: first, the apoplectic form called by older writers *livida,* and second, the anæmic form called by older writers *pallida.* In the apoplectic form there is a bluish discoloration of the skin, a prominence and injection of the conjunctivæ, and a swollen state of the face and lips. The cardiac pulsations are generally strong, and the cord is distended with blood. In the anæmic form the child has a deadly pallor; the lips and fingers are pale, the body limp, and muscles relaxed. The heart's action is inaudible, presenting the condition known as asystole. Duvergie, in studying the asphyxia of adults, noted that when people were removed *shortly after* an embankment of earth had buried them, they presented a turgescence of the face, a violent hue of the skin, and frequent and regular pulsations of the heart.

When they were found *some time after* an embankment of earth had buried them, they presented a deathly pallor of the skin, and the heart sounds were usually inaudible or very feeble. Thus it is apparent that the above conditions of asphyxia present, first, a *mild;* and then a *severe* type.

CAUSES.

The main causes of asphyxia are due to:—

1. Compression of the cord in a natural way.
2. Premature detachment of the placenta.
3. Forced rotation of the head in difficult forceps application or great contraction of the uterus in head-last cases, thus rendering the vessels of the uterus impermeable to blood and suspending the placental respiration.

Another cause of asphyxia is shortness of the cord from its encircling the neck tightly after the head is born. The child's face in this condition becomes turgid and blue, and unless relieved the child will die. The promptest treatment consists in cutting the cord above the child's head and delivering the infant's body as quickly as possible. Boisliniere advises the above method even at the risk of fracturing a humerus.

SIGN FOR DISTINGUISHING THE STILLBORN FROM THE DEAD.

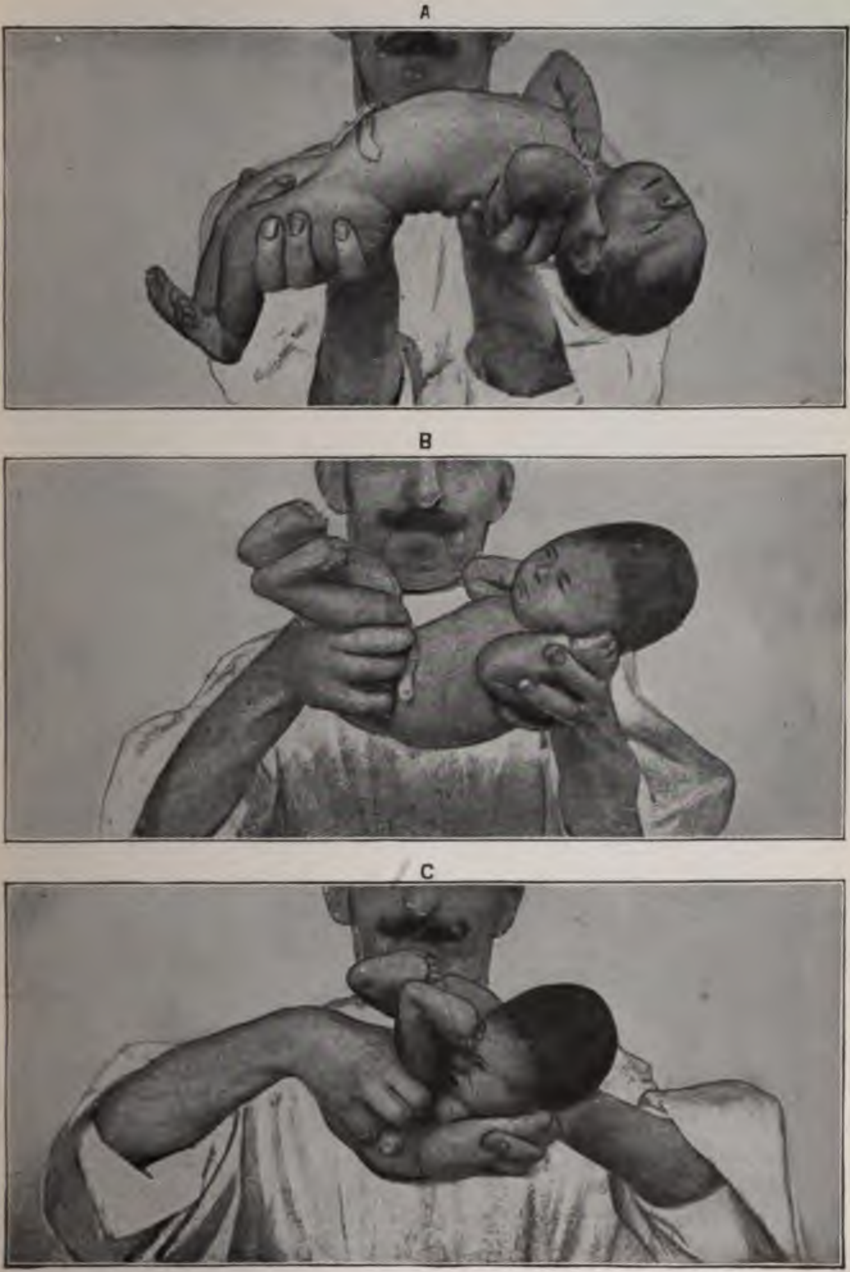
Bedford Brown says that the best means for distinguishing the stillborn from the dead is to be found in the temperature. If the temperature keeps near the normal, we must not cease our efforts at resuscitation, even if the complete suspension of cardiac and respiratory action has lasted for twenty minutes or more; but if the temperature of the child suddenly falls 10, 15, or 20 degrees below the normal, then the case is hopeless. Another sign is the state of the pupil: in the dead the pupil is widely dilated, in the stillborn it is but little, if at all, relaxed (*Therap. Gaz.*, Vol. XXXI, No. 6). The method consists in injecting into each arm 5 drops of whisky with 1 drop of tincture of belladonna. If the infant is only stillborn, the nervous and circulatory system respond quickly. If there is no response or only a very feeble one, warm sterilized water is injected under the skin (a drachm or two) and also about 2 drachms with a drop of aromatic spirits of ammonia, into the intestines. After this dry heat is applied. If these measures fail to produce a reaction, it is a fair test of the absence of vitality.

Treatment.—If the child presents a livid condition and is apparently apoplectic with the cord pulsating strongly, *then cut the cord* as soon as possible and allow at least an ounce of blood to escape. Sometimes it is necessary to cut the cord in several places. If bleeding does not ensue rapidly, then the cord should be severed and placed in warm water at a temperature of 105° to 110° F. This will usually stimulate the flow of blood.

When the child is born in a pallid condition and *feels cold, then the cord should not be cut* until all pulsations therein have ceased. It is in this condition that it will be so important to rapidly cleanse the mouth, nose, and larynx of mucus and blood. Some authors advise mouth-to-mouth suction or suction made through a soft-rubber catheter placed in the larynx, but these are usually preliminary means, and success will only follow methodical application of artificial respiration.

Byrd's method is very simple. It can be conducted without rough handling, a matter of vital importance. The child's body rests on its back and is supported on the palm surfaces of the physician's hands. The physician, by elevating and lowering his hands, can produce inspiration and expiration in a rapid and efficient manner. This method is well worth trying. An important point to remember is to pull the tongue forward; for this purpose an artery clamp will serve in an emergency, if the physician does not have Laborde's forceps for traction on the tongue.

PLATE II



The Byrd-Dew Method of Artificial Respiration. *A*, Extension. *B*, Semiflexion. *C*, Complete flexion. (Grandin & Jarman.)

Laborde advises rhythmical traction upon the tongue eight or ten times a minute. This is a valuable method and can be used while the child is immersed in hot water. Thus, the benefit of the stimulus on the tongue will be apparent while the hot bath is used.

Hypodermics of strychnine, $^1/_{100}$ grain, combined with 5 or 10 minims of whisky, may be indicated. Flushing the colon with a pint or more of water, temperature 110° or 115° F., to which a half-drachm of alcohol has been added, may also aid in stimulating the circulatory and the respiratory tract. It is advisable to persevere for some time with the above method of resuscitation, even though we may be successful. It frequently happens that new-born infants will respond to active treatment and show signs of life, but we must continue for some time, or the respirations will cease and the infant may die.

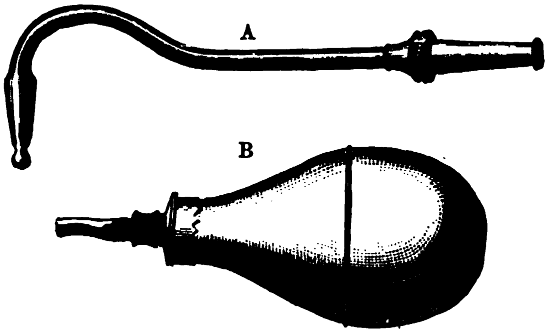


Fig. 15.—Ribemont's Tube for Inflating the Lungs.

A valuable means of restoring suspended animation consists in immersing the new-born infant, first, into very warm water, and then into cold water. Alternate from hot to cold water every ten or fifteen seconds.

INFLATION OF THE LUNGS.

This method is sometimes useful when other means fail. Some authors advise the mouth-to-mouth method. This consists in filling the cheeks with fresh air and then blowing the same into the infant's mouth. It can also be done by introducing a catheter into the infant's larynx. While the mouth-to-mouth method is simpler, it is not always a sure way of inflating the lungs. Quite frequently the air will be blown from the mouth, through the pharynx, into the stomach. To avoid the latter, the head should be thrown backward, and compression made over the epigastrium. If the nose is closed, air is less likely to enter the stomach.

Mouth-to-mouth insufflation of air is not devoid of danger. Reich reported a case of tuberculous meningitis due to attempts at reanimation by a tuberculous midwife. The Ribemont laryngeal tube is much safer.

Ribemont's tube for inflating the lungs is inserted like an intubation tube. It serves two purposes:—

1. Forcing air into the lungs.
2. The aspiration of mucus from the trachea or bronchi.

Great care should be used with any and all methods. No force is necessary.

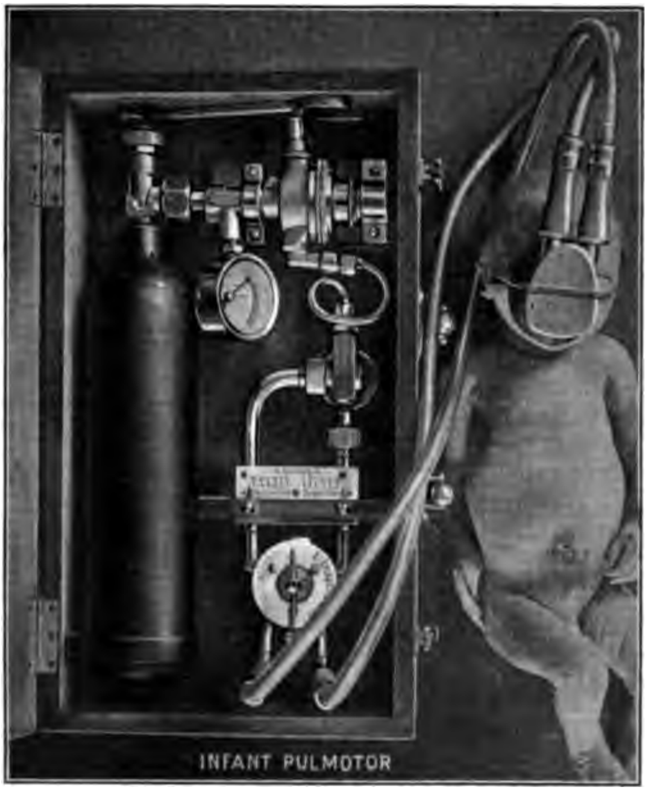


Fig. 16.—Infant Pulmotor.

Literature records many successful cases of resuscitation of the asphyxiated child with the aid of the Draeger pulmotor.[1]

The infant pulmotor weighs twenty pounds and is carried in a box about 19 inches by 10 by 5. It contains a cylinder of oxygen. Each cylinder contains oxygen sufficient for the continuous working of the apparatus for one hour (Fig. 16).

Two flexible metal tubes connect the instrument with the mask: one forces the oxygen into the lungs under the required pressure; the other is for suction, and removes the vitiated air from the organ.

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[1] H. D. Fry, Surgery, Gynecology, and Obstetrics, Oct., 1913.

Technique.—The mouth, throat, and upper air passages are freed of mucus by gauze wrapped round the finger and by holding the infant head downward. It is then placed in the dorsal position upon a table or hard surface, shoulders raised and head extended. If relaxed, the lower jaw must be held up and pushed forward. The tongue is pulled well out with a silk thread passed through the tip. This is preferable to the forceps or tenaculum, as it does not interfere with the close application of the mask. The mask is tightly applied to the face, covering the mouth and nose, and held firmly by an assistant or by a rubber band encircling the head. The trachea is pressed gently against the spine so as to close the œsophagus, and if this is not enough to prevent distention of the stomach a small gauze sponge, attached to a string, can be placed in the œsophagus below the larynx. Inspiratory and expiratory movements are induced by moving the lever alternately from side to side, filling the lungs and expanding the chest walls, holding the inflation for a few moments, and then deflating the lungs. If the infant should make any voluntary effort to breathe, the manipulation of the apparatus should be so timed as to inflate during the inspiratory efforts and deflate during the expiratory. Efforts to resuscitate the infant should not be abandoned as long as there is any heart action.

CHAPTER VII.

FOETAL ICHTHYOSIS.

THIS condition is described by Ballantyne, Kyber, Wassmuth, and Carbone as a skin disease of the foetus most probably developed about the fourth month of intrauterine life. It consists of horny epidermic plates over the whole surface of the body, separated from each other by fissures and furrows, associated with certain deformities of the mouth, nose, eyes, ears, and extremities, and leading to the death of the infant very soon after birth.

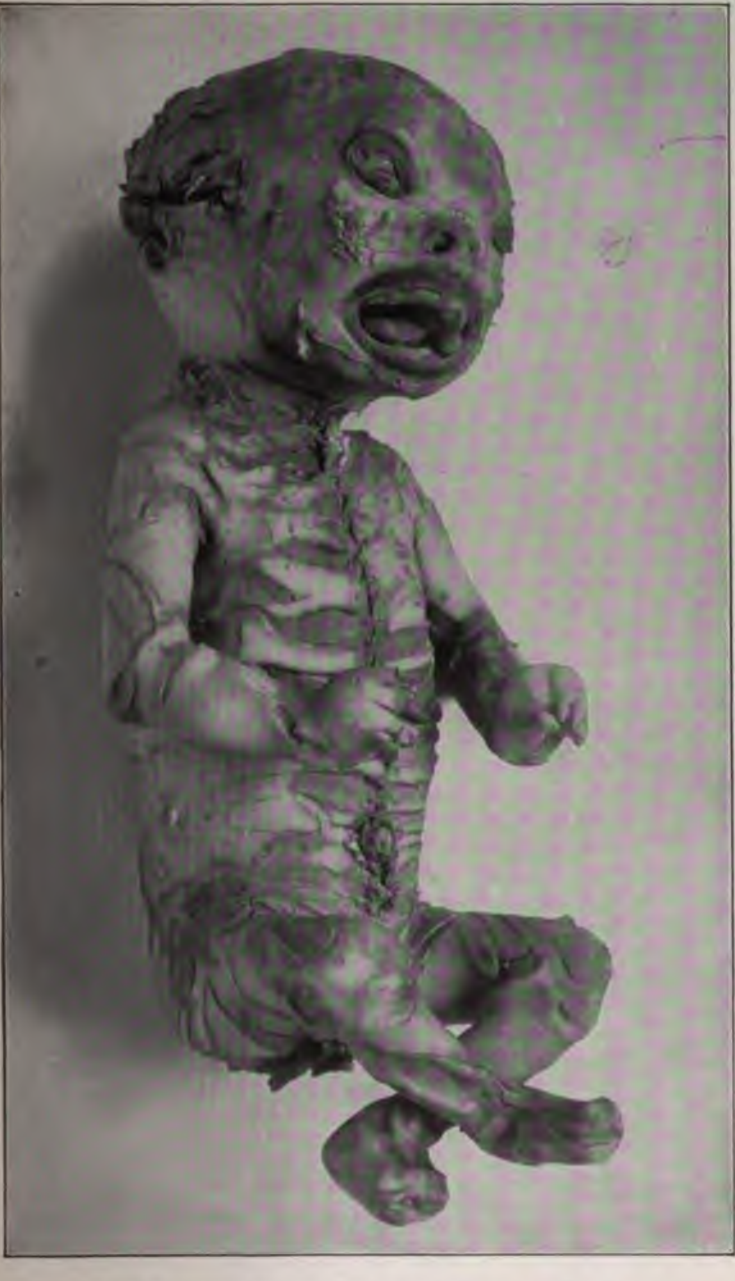
It is a rare condition, as only 12 cases could be found in the whole literature up to the year 1895. For the following case I am indebted to Dr. A. S. Daniel:—

Clinical History.—This case was first seen five hours after birth. The child had passed urine and meconium, cried continuously, sleep was impossible. The slightest jar of the crib or exposure to the air increased the crying. The respiration was irregular, the surface of the body cold. The child swallowed with difficulty and was fed with the aid of a medicine dropper. The child died suddenly twenty four hours after birth. The temperature taken soon after birth was 103° F.

Description of the Child.—There was no resemblance between the child and a human being or any living thing. The tongue was the only part of the body that seemed capable of motion. The body presents the appearance of having been in an integument much too small for the skeleton, and Nature in its growth had so stretched the skin that it has the appearance of being torn in some places. Where it is torn through, a purple-covered slit appears; where torn partly through, a yellowish colored tissue remains. There is no uniformity of arrangement of the fissures. Fewer are found on the back, and those on the extremities are more shallow. The color of the fissure, a purplish red, is in marked contrast to the color of the skin. In a few places bright blood is found, as if the break were of recent origin. The whole body is cold and rigid. The scalp is divided into fissures and numerous irregular conical projections, varying in size. A few thin hairs are found on the lateral surface of the scalp. The external ears are replaced by conical projections. The palpebral fissures are filled with purplish-red masses; deep down in the sockets, eyeballs can be distinguished. The nose is flattened and is identified by the widely opened nostrils. The mouth is open, showing a non-hypertrophied tongue. The lips are of a purplish red color. The mouth measures 5 centimeters in length. Circumference of head, 36.5 centimeters; glabella to occiput, 18.5 centimeters; ear to ear, 15.5 centimeters. The neck is short. Anteriorly a fissure extends from the neck to the umbilicus, 2 centimeters in width. From this fissure, ridges of yellow skin and purple fissures extend toward the axillæ; they are of irregular size and depth.

The extremities are rigid and in the foetal position. The arms can be raised only at right angles with the body. They cannot be extended at the elbow. The

PLATE III



Fatal Fœtal Ichthyosis. Case of Dr. Annie S. Daniel.

hands are thickened and the fingers are rudimentary. The legs are crossed. The motion at the hip and knee joint is very imperfect. The toes are rudimentary.

The median raphe in the scrotum is faintly marked; testicles are not descended. The penis is ½ centimeter in length. The anus is open. The length of the fœtus is 42 centimeters, and its weight is 4 pounds 13 ounces. In this case it was impossible to find any clinical cause for the disease.

Of the cause of fœtal ichthyosis practically nothing is known. That it is not a fatal disease *in utero* is demonstrated by the fact that only one case thus far has been stillborn.

CHAPTER VIII.

INFLAMMATORY AND NON-INFLAMMATORY CONDITIONS.

ICTERUS NEONATORUM.

THIS form of icterus is frequently designated as a physiological condition. It usually begins on the second or third day after birth, and may continue for a week or even a month. Henoch reports a case of icterus brought to his clinic which lasted five weeks and ended fatally. The majority of text-books describe this condition as a mild disease and give a good prognosis. There are many theories as to the causes leading up to this condition. The hæmatogenic theory maintains that a disintegration of red corpuscles takes place. This liberates the hæmoglobin, giving rise to the yellowish pigmentation.

Racchi, of Naples, disproved the correctness of this theory by a series of blood-counts which he reported at the International Medical Congress held at Rome in 1895.

"We can scarcely believe that the red corpuscles simply go to pieces in the blood, and that the products of such disintegration, floating freely about or temporarily lodged in the tissues, give rise to the yellow color. It is far more in accordance with the workings of the living organism to suppose that the disintegration takes place in some organ, *e.g.*, liver or spleen, and if the products thereof are floating about, it is after passing such organ and on their way to final elimination."

Infant F. J. was seen by me when three days old. Had greenish stools containing mucus, and appeared colicky and cried considerably. No vomiting. There was a universal yellowish pigment of the body; jaundice well marked; gums were yellowish; conjunctival mucous membrane showed yellowish pigmentation. The umbilicus was somewhat excoriated and moist from the presence of pus. The diagnosis made was septic omphalitis, resulting in hæmatogenic jaundice. Very small doses of calomel, 1/10 grain, several times a day, were ordered; also colon irrigations with chamomile tea. The infant was nursed by its mother. Aseptic treatment of the umbilicus with sterile gauze, cleansing with bichloride, and then dusting the parts with talcum salicylicum quickly healed the inflammatory condition. The infant recovered in about one week, showing no sign of its previous jaundice.

The following case is noteworthy owing to its rarity:—

An infant was born of apparently healthy parents. Dr. Mehrenlander, the physician in attendance, stated that there was nothing abnormal at the time of birth. The infant weighed about seven pounds. It was the fourth child. Three children of this same family had previously died on the third day after birth. They were to all appearances healthy, but were jaundiced. Nothing was noticeable with them, excepting the yellow pigmentation of the skin. The child died before I arrived at the bedside. It was three days old. The skin then presented a deep yellowish-green pigmentation, more marked on the abdomen. The conjunctival mucous membrane was deeply pigmented. There was no inflammatory condition noticeable in the region of the umbilicus. The cord was dressed with aseptic gauze, and no infection was suspected from this channel. The attending physician suspected syphilis in the father. There were no other symptoms. Neither vomiting nor diarrhœa. A stool passed before the infant died, which looked like meconium.

An interesting point about the case is that this was the fourth child in that family which died of icterus neonatorum a few days after birth. The child died without any apparent suffering, showing no symptoms of illness. The temperature when taken was normal.

Zweifel describes a series of cases of icterus resulting from the effects of chloroform passing through the placenta. The writer has noted the association of icterus neonatorum in a large number of children born after a severe labor, requiring prolonged chloroform narcosis. This may have been *accidental, yet it is worth noting.*

James D. Voorhees, in responding to my question concerning the association of chloroform anæsthesia and icterus at the Sloane Maternity Hospital, states that "all women receive chloroform at said hospital, and about 33 per cent. of the infants born are jaundiced. All premature infants also are jaundiced."

SCLEREMA NEONATORUM.

This disease is characterized by a hardening or thickening of the skin and the subcutaneous cellular tissue. The pathological lesions have been carefully studied by Northrup. His case was a foundling born amid insanitary surroundings. When five days old the legs were swollen and the feet as hard as a board.

The swelling spread upward, involving every part of the body. The temperature in the rectum was 35° C. (95° F.). The infant died on the ninth day. The body felt as though it were frozen. Osler also describes this condition in this country.

Symptoms.—An œdema-like swelling, very cold to the touch, and very hard on palpation, involving circumscribed areas, appears soon after birth. I have seen sclerema spread from the shoulders to the trunk and arms.

The infant appears very sick. The temperature is subnormal, and recovery is rare.

Was called to see an infant five days old. Found the trunk swollen, the hands and feet cold, and the temperature in rectum subnormal. The infant refused the breast and had no strength. Brandy and water were prescribed. Mustard foot-bath ordered, and one pint of warm saline solution injected into the colon. There was no nausea or vomiting. No retention of urine. Sclerema neonatorum was diagnosed. The swelling spread, involving the legs and arms, until the whole body, including the face, was puffed and hard. The infant could no longer open its eyes and died on the ninth day in convulsions.

MASTITIS NEONATORUM.

The new-born infant frequently secretes a fluid in the mammæ. Females, both human and animal, occasionally secrete milk without having been previously pregnant. With regard to the milk secreted by infants, there is some doubt about its real nature. Kollicker does not view it as a true milk, but considers its appearance connected with the formation of the mammary glands. This secretion is also known as witch's milk.

Sinety, on the other hand, upon anatomical grounds, considers it a true lacteal secretion. It probably is a sort of imperfect milk, loaded with leucocytes, and this is the more likely as Vollard[1] notices that it frequently ends in abscess.

Schlossberger gives an imperfect quantitative analysis of a sample of milk obtained by squeezing the breasts of a new-born infant, a male. In the course of a few days about a drachm was obtained. The following was the result of the analysis:—

Water	96.75
Fat	0.82
Ash	0.05
Casein, sugar, and extractives	2.83
Sugar-reaction	strong

The most complete analysis we possess of such milk is by von Gesner:—

Milk-fat	1.456
Casein	0.557
Albumin	0.490
Milk-sugar	0.956
Ash	0.826
Water	95.705
Total solids	4.295

I was called to see a female infant six days old. The mother told me that the breasts were swollen and contained milk. The same could be expressed by gentle stroking of the mammæ. The treatment consisted of the application of an ice-bag and inunctions of:—

℞ Ung. ext. belladonna	2 drachms
Ung. hydrarg. cin.	1 drachm
Cold cream	1 ounce

M. Apply on linen with tight compresses.

After several days the breast dried and the swelling disappeared.

Another infant, three weeks old, was seen by me recently, in consultation. The mother was delivered by a midwife, and her condition as well as that of the infant as apparently normal. The infant's breasts, when seven days old, appeared tender id swollen, and the mother was advised to poultice them with flaxseed. This she d, and in addition *squeezed the secretion from the infant's breasts.* This traumasm caused irritation, inflammation, and finally the formation of an abscess. An icision was made, the pus evacuated, and the wound healed.

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[1] "Traité des Maladies des Enfants Nouveau-nés," third edition, 1837, p. 717.

It is important to remember that the lacteal secretion in an infant's reast is a physiological condition, and if undisturbed will be absorbed adually.

Erysipelas in the New-born.

When this disease occurs in the new-born, and the mother has a septic ritonitis or other infectious disease, the infant should be *immediately olated from the mother.* The symptoms are the same as those seen in ysipelas of older children, although vomiting and symptoms of general psis most often accompany this condition. The fontanel is depressed.

Prognosis.—The prognosis is usually very grave, especially so if the fant must be removed from its mother's breast.

Treatment.—The strictest antisepsis must be used. An infant should placed under the care of a trained nurse, and all instructions in regard the hygiene of the infant must be strictly carried out. The general plan treatment is the same as that outlined in the chapter on "Erysipelas."

Tuberculosis in the New-born.

The transmission of tuberculosis from the mother to the new-born extremely rare. Cases are on record in which the tubercle bacilli were ansmitted from the mother to the infant. An occasional transmission of berculosis takes place through the placenta. The reason for the infreiency of this occurrence is that the blood of a tuberculous patient rarely ntains tubercle bacilli. Schmorl and Birch-Hirschfeld believe that marnal tuberculosis can be transmitted, but not before the end of the fifth onth of pregnancy, and that the placenta is always tuberculous when the tus is infected. (For further details see chapter on "Tuberculosis.")

Peritonitis in the New-born.

Under "Septic Omphalitis" I have described a case of septic infecon seen in consultation practice. The case recovered. At times the inmmatory condition will extend from the umbilicus to the peritoneum, and us a septic peritonitis results.

Bacteriology.—In such pyogenic infections the streptococcus can be und. The bacteria gain entrance directly through the umbilical vessels.

Pathology.—The same lesions affecting the serous membrane, as the eura and the pericardium, are found in the peritoneum. Adhesions freiently remain.

The symptoms, prognosis, and treatment are described in the article on "Acute Peritonitis," Part V.

PEMPHIGUS NEONATORUM.[1]

This condition is seen occasionally in the new-born infant. It consists of blebs, which contain yellow serum. In size they vary from that of a pea to that of a small bean. When these rupture they are replaced by superficial ulcers covered with a thin, black crust. Sometimes a violet stain is left, which may last for some time. The duration of each bulla is about one week. The location of the eruption is on the palms of the hands and the soles of the feet. It is a streptococcus infection. The cases seen by me have invariably occurred in poorly nourished children such as we find in athrepsia (marasmus).

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[1] See article on "Chronic Pemphigus."

CHAPTER IX.

ABNORMALITIES AND CONGENITAL MALFORMATIONS.

ANGEIOMA.

CIRCUMSCRIBED dilatations of the blood-vessels or capillaries are occasionally seen in the new-born baby. Spongy tumors consisting of tortuous blood-vessels of a bluish-red color are usually seen. These tumors are filled ith blood and grow very rapidly. In a case seen by me (see Fig. 17) the ass was adherent to the forehead and completely obliterated the sight of e left eye. This condition is one that can easily be remedied by prompt rgical treatment. Some cases will, if neglected, ultimately result in rcomatous degeneration.

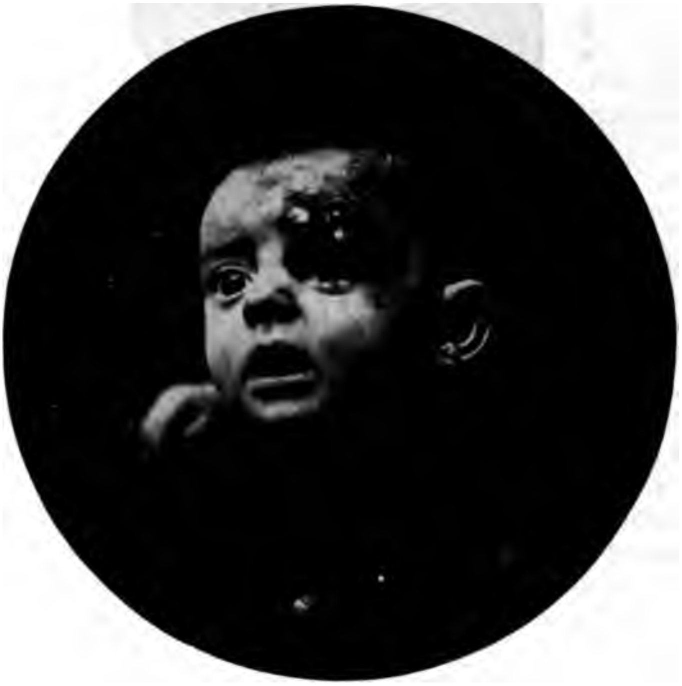

Fig. 17.—Infant ten months old. From my children's service at the German Poliklinik. The mass of bluish, tortuous vessels interfered with the eyesight. Bleeding was very easily provoked. Surgical treatment was the only means of eradicating this mass. (Original.)

Treatment.—Injections into the mass of a 5 per cent. nitrate of silver lution, or destroying the mass with a galvanocautery, chromic acid, or nitric acid, are most generally used. A good plan is to apply first pure carbolic acid, after which the fuming nitric acid should be used. This latter method is painless and effective.

HARELIP.

This congenital deformity is frequently seen in children. Sometimes it is simply "a slight indentation in the lip, or the fissure may extend to the nostril." The treatment is surgical.

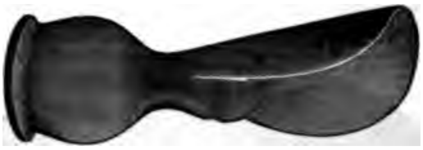

Fig. 18.—Harelip Nipple.[1]

CLEFT PALATE.

This abnormality is frequently seen in children. While the soft palate only may be affected, it not infrequently happens that the fissure extends through the hard palate, thus causing a wide gap in the roof of the mouth.

Feeding Children with Cleft Palate.—An infant born with cleft palate has a greater struggle for existence than a child born without this deformity. It is advisable to give the best possible food, and, therefore, breast-milk only should be used. The milk should be drawn from a woman's breast by means of a breast-pump, as described in the section on "Specimen of Breast-milk for Chemical Examination."

An artificial nipple should be attached to the feeding-bottle, and to the former should be attached a flap of India rubber so made that it fits the roof of the mouth. The pressure of the nipple against the piece of rubber, when in position, converts it into an artificial palate-piece, and prevents the escape of the milk into the nose during the effort of swallowing. This shield is chosen to avoid permitting curdled milk to pass into the recesses of the turbinated bones and to cause aphthous patches. (See Fig. 18.)

It is advisable to operate on an infant for this deformity between the third and sixth months of its life, if sufficient progress in its development will warrant it.

When the above method of feeding is not satisfactory and the child shows evidences of starvation, then we must resort to gavage. (See article on "Gavage.")

Our aim should be to build up the infant from its birth, with breast-milk if obtainable. In one case known to me the breast-milk was pumped four hours and the infant was nourished by gavage with this milk. ›ast-milk is not obtainable, then properly modified milk should be ›onform with the age and requirements of the child. If the child ıssimilate its food properly, the operation should be postponed until is built up and strong enough to stand the operation; hence the estimating the time for the operation is dependent more on proper han on any other factor.

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[1] This harelip nipple can be procured from the Miller Rubber Manufacturing Co., Akron, Ohio.

ienic measures are very important, as the irritation by food will y cause inflammation in the mouth. For details of the surgical t the reader is referred to the many good text-books on operative

TONGUE-TIE (ADHÆSIA LINGUÆ).

ʒue-tie consists of an abnormally short frænum. In some instances ıterfere with nursing, and possibly with speaking. It is one of the ial disorders of infancy.

tment.—Incise the frænum near its attachment to the tongue with curved scissors. The incision may be enlarged with the aid of l instrument. Some authors advise using the finger-nail, which ıwever, is not aseptic. A tongue-tie should not be operated upon ›ction exists in the immediate surroundings.

after-treatment consists in using a bland mouth wash, such as a ıt. listerine solution, or 1 per cent. alum solution, especially after he child.

CONGENITAL ADENOIDS.

›ccasionally meet with infants in which this condition exists. This al impediment prevents breathing through the nose. An infant, , is at a great disadvantage, because it cannot breathe while nurs- ꝫ following case will serve to illustrate this condition:—

s called to see an infant, Mary W., in consultation. The attending physi- me the following history: The infant is twenty days old and weighs 6 ıd 14 ounces. At birth she weighed 7 pounds. She was nursed at the ›reast for about one week. The infant seemed to dislike the breast, as she w and immediately let go of the nipple. The mother believed the infant did ıe taste of her milk. A wet-nurse was procured, and the same trouble was

The infant was again put to the breast when six weeks old and continued to nurse successfully for six months. She was then weaned, owing to the illness of the wet-nurse. Cows' milk was substituted. The child is today a perfectly healthy little girl.

PROTRUSION OF THE EARS.

Protrusion of the ears is frequently seen in children. The anxious mother will consult the physician regarding the treatment. These cases are easily managed in very young infants. A fenestrated cap, closely fitting to the head so that the ears are well held back in their normal position, has served me very well. Young infants object to having their heads covered, but soon become accustomed to this cap, as it is only worn at night and removed in the morning. It is advisable to change the cap frequently, as some children perspire from its use. It must be worn for months before any benefit is noted.

In very severe cases in which the above treatment is not successful, it may be necessary to call in the surgeon. The operation is a simple one and the result is excellent.

ABNORMALITIES OF THE AIR PASSAGES.

When there is deficient oxygenation of the lungs, collapse frequently occurs, and is called atelectasis pulmonum. This condition is due to the unaërated condition of the vesicles. The trouble is usually found in the nasopharynx in the form of adenoids, unless some rare malignant condition is present.

Many pigeon-breasted children—with apparent rachitic manifestations of the thorax—owe this anatomical peculiarity more to improper oxygenation of the lungs than to improper feeding. In such children it is not rare to meet with congenital adenoids. (Read article on "Congenital Adenoids.")

It is to be understood that changing the food or giving restorative treatment, such as iron or codliver-oil, cannot cure such a child until the cause is eradicated.

CONGENITAL STENOSIS OF THE LARYNX.

In the chapter on "Inherited Syphilis" I describe a case of syphilitic stenosis of the larynx which necessitated a tracheotomy. Several years ago a child was brought to my clinic suffering with cyanosis and difficult breathing. Intubation was tried without affording any relief. As a last resort tracheotomy was performed, but this afforded no relief. A post-mortem examination showed that we were dealing with a *diverticulum of the trachea.* In addition thereto the larynx and trachea were lined with a series of syphilitic ulcerations.

PROMINENT STERNUM.

is is frequently called pigeon-breast. It is usually seen in older ι. It is occasionally seen as a result of Pott's disease, but more fre- it is associated with rickets. It has been described by me in the on "Rachitis."

DEPRESSED STERNUM.

ngenital depression of the sternum is occasionally seen in very young It is more frequently seen as a funnel-shaped depression, and is a n of structural weakness. It more often accompanies a general manifestation, to which I call attention in the chapter on "Rachitis."

HÆMATOMA OF THE STERNO-MASTOID.

ıring labor traumatic conditions frequently induce hæmorrhages. onditions are, therefore, seen in natural labor with very large chil- r when forceps are used. Pressure is cited by most authors as one of ses of this condition. Henoch believes that hæmatoma of the sterno- l is caused by twisting the head during labor. The swelling is due xtravasation of blood and to inflammatory conditions of the muscle. ırely seen before the child is two or three weeks old. There is no nt necessary. The blood is absorbed and the swelling gradually ars.

CEPHALHÆMATOMA.

swelling is sometimes seen on the top of the head during the first rs of the infant's life. It is usually associated with the application ps or a similar injury during labor. This condition is rare in chil- The statistics of the Sloane Maternity Hospital show that this con- vas met with in 20 out of 1300 consecutive births, or 1.6 per cent. nay be several swellings. They are most frequently seen over the or occipital bone.

nptoms.—A swelling that is very soft and fluctuating is noticed. elling gradually increases in size, and attains its maximum at the welve or fourteen days. There is no pulsation palpable. The tem- is usually normal.

gnosis.—This condition is frequently mistaken for encephalocele. er, however, is always seen in conjunction with the fontanel or along of the sutures.

ssure causes cerebral symptoms. This condition can be confounded drocephalus. In the latter the symmetrical enlargement of the whole always a characteristic feature.

Baby M., seven days old, was born with the aid of forceps, after a very difficult and dry labor. When the infant was three days old a swelling was noticed on the scalp over the left parietal bone. This swelling gradually increased in size and felt soft, doughy, and fluctuating. An incision was made which liberated about four ounces of clear, fluid blood. Several days later this case was also seen by Dr. Willy Meyer, and as suppuration existed it was necessary to treat the wound on general surgical principles. The child recovered.

Treatment.—The above case illustrates the mistake that can be made. A hæmatoma is a benign condition and disappears without treatment. Bandaging and compression are unnecessary, but injury to the part must be avoided.

Caput Succedaneum (Spurious Cephalhæmatoma: Supplementary Head).

This is a swelling of the scalp due to congestion, resulting in an extravasation of the blood and lymph into the subcutaneous tissue which is external to the pericranium. This swelling does not fluctuate. It is usually seen in that portion of the head which first presents itself at the vulva during labor. No treatment is required, as this condition usually becomes normal.

Congenital Cyst of the Kidney.

The literature records an occasional case of this condition. There are no symptoms which would be the means of determining this condition during life. The diagnosis is therefore made post-mortem.

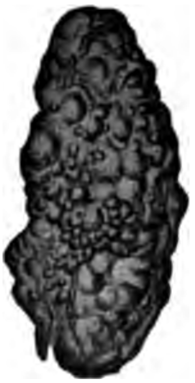

Fig. 19.—Congenital Cystic Kidney, half natural size. (Langerhans.)

Congenital Sacral Tumor.

J. B., male infant, eleven months old, was brought to my children's service at the German Poliklinik. He was breast-fed and appeared in good health. The mother noticed a large swelling over the sacral and lumbar regions. The infant did

not seem to be in pain. The growth was non-inflammatory and did not interfere with the movements of the legs. The diagnosis of congenital lipoma was made and an operation advised. The case was sent by me to Dr. Geo. F. Shrady for operation at St. Francis Hospital. The tumor was removed. The case recovered.

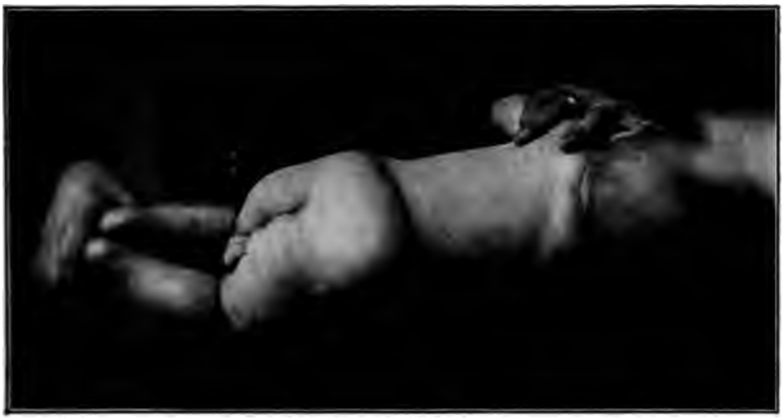

Fig. 20.—Congenital Sacral Tumor. (Original.)

Congenital Malformations of the Rectum.

E. R. Kirby[1] states that these occur under the following types:—

1. Congenital narrowing of the anus or rectum, without complete occlusion. The anal aperture is at times preternaturally small, either in consequence of a contraction of the lower end of the rectum, or from the fact that the skin may extend occasionally over the border of the anal margin. The diagnosis is usually easy, for the contraction is near the anus and can be readily detected by the finger, or seen when due to a fold of skin extending across the anus. The treatment consists in dividing the ring or skin on the dorsum, and daily dilatation, either with the finger or soft-rubber bougie.

2. Closure of the anus by a membranous diaphragm (atresia of the anus) is the simplest of all forms of congenital malformations, and is treated by a crucial incision through the membrane.

3. In imperforate rectum one may expect to find some of the most difficult cases of malformation, although some are comparatively simple. Instead of a normal anus the skin of the perineum extends across the anal region from side to side, and the rectum may terminate quite a distance from the normal site of the anus. The intervening space may be made up of connective tissue, while a circular elevation or depression marks the normal site of the anus. Occasionally a distinct fibrous cord may be traced

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[1] "Congenital Rectal Malformations." Archives of Pediatrics, August, 1897.

from the rectal pouch to the skin. If the rectal pouch be not at too great a distance from the skin, a sense of fluctuation may be felt by firm pressure of one finger over the anus and the hand over the abdomen.

4. The system which separates the anal and rectal pouches in cases of imperforate rectum with a normal anus is generally within easy reach of the anus. It may be perforated and slow dribbling of meconium allowed. There may also be more than one septum.

5. The anus may be absent and the rectum open at any point in the perineum or sacral region. The lower portion of the rectum in these cases is usually of a fistulous character, lined by true mucous membrane, and the abnormal anus is always narrow and insufficient for its purpose. Occasionally the rectum terminates in two distinct openings, at a greater or less distance from each other.

6. The anus may be absent and the rectum terminate in the bladder, urethra, or vagina. In females the vaginal opening is the most common; in males the vesical. This condition is usually rapidly fatal unless relieved by prompt surgical interference.

7. The rectum or the large intestine may be entirely absent.

Kirby lays down the following rules:—

1. An operation should always be performed, and performed without delay.

2. If there be any chance of establishing an opening at the normal site of the anus, the surgeon should at first direct his attention to this procedure.

3. The use of a trocar as an aid in finding the rectal pouch before or after incision through the perineum is not sanctioned by modern surgical authority.

4. The results of attempts to establish an outlet for the imperforate rectum through the perineum are not favorable as regards the production of a useful anus.

5. In case of failure to establish a new anus in the anal region, colotomy should at once be performed.

6. In the formation of an artificial anus the left groin is the best site for the operation.

7. Attempts at establishing an anus in the anal region after a colotomy are attended with great danger, and are generally unsuccessful.

PART III.

NUTRITION.

CHAPTER I.

THE INFANTILE STOMACH.

THE infantile stomach is vertical and cylindrical and the fundus but little developed. Thus, whenever there is a tendency to vomit, the antiperistaltic motions do not press against the fundus, but directly upward. There is, therefore, rather an overflow than a vomiting of the gastric contents; this takes place so easily that the infants are not disturbed by it.[1]

Anatomy.—The muscular development is weakest at the fundus. According to Fleischmann, the oblique and the longitudinal fibers described by Henle, which have their origin at the pyloric opening, "do not exist in the infant." The investigations of Leo and von Puteren show that, in spite of this lack of muscular development, the stomach of a nursing infant is emptied in one and a half or two hours. With food that is more difficult to digest, the gastric contents are propelled more slowly.

The Mucous Membrane of the Stomach.—The mucous glands are far more numerous on the pars pylorica than in adults, whereas they are far fewer in number at the cardia.

The mucous membrane of the infant secretes gastric juice, which, in general, is similar in properties to that of the adults. The amount of secretion in the infant is *far less* than in the adult, while its chemical constitution is the same, namely: pepsin, lab-ferment, and acids. The exact proportion of the ferment and pepsin has not yet been studied sufficiently to admit of any positive deductions being made.

Physiology.—It is very important to know that the mucous membrane of the mouth is practically dry at birth; the secretion of saliva is very small, and, according to Korowin and Zweifel, increases toward the end of the second month.

The fermentative (sugar-forming) property of saliva, which is trifling at the commencement, increases with the quantity of the saliva secreted. This is essentially true of other secretions; thus, the pancreatic juice does not have the same emulsifying properties in the infant as in adults.

The nursing or sucking center is located, according to experiments made on animals by Basch, in the medulla oblongata on the inner side of the corpus restiforme.

The sucking act is reflex; according to Auerbach, the muscles of the tongue participate most actively.

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[1] Jacobi, "Therapeutics of Infancy and Childhood," page 25.

Acids in the Infant's Stomach.—The gastric contents in a nursling contain two acids: (1) hydrochloric acid; (2) lactic acid. The relative acidity is smaller than in adults, the highest point being reached one and a half hours after nursing. According to von Puteren, the acidity is two and one-half to three times as small as in the stomach of adults. According to Leo, the acidity of the gastric juice of nurslings 1½ hours after drinking is only 0.13 per cent., whereas, in the adult, after the same time, the acidity is from 1.5 to 3.2 per cent. According to Wohlmann, free HCl can be found in healthy nurslings from 1¼ to 2 hours after taking food. The percentage of free HCl ranges from 0.83 to 1.8 per cent.

Lactic Acid.—The quantity of lactic acid is, according to Heubner, between 0.1 and 0.4 per cent.

Pepsin and Hydrochloric Acid.—There are two chief functions of the pepsin and hydrochloric acid which are the same in both infant and adult: First, the power of killing bacteria: a real bactericidal power. Second, as a solvent for albumin. Thus, it is apparent that pathogenic micro-organisms that might have entered the stomach can be destroyed, although we know the small quantity of acid is hardly able to cope with large quantities of food contaminated with bacteria.

Unorganized Ferments.—The unorganized ferments seem to be nitrogenous bodies; their exact composition is unknown, and it is doubtful if they have ever been obtained perfectly pure (Landois and Stirling).

Action of the Saliva on Various Bacteria.—Triolo describes a series of interesting experiments with saliva. He first irrigated the mouth with bichloride or permanganate of potash solution, followed this by irrigation with sterilized water until the disinfecting substances were removed, and then inoculated the surface of various culture-media with the sputum. His results proved that saliva possesses a distinct bactericidal property, for cultures of five-day-old bacteria were destroyed, as well as fresh bacteria eighteen hours old.

This property, however, was lost when saliva was filtered. The saliva of the parotid and submaxillary glands, taken singly, were equally efficacious as their combined secretion. He believes that the greatest bactericidal action is due to the secretion of the mucous glands in the mouth.

The Influence of Gastric Juice on Pathogenic Germs.—Gastric juice is, according to the experiments of Drs. Kurlow and Wagner, an exceedingly strong germicidal agent, and when living bacilli get into the intestinal canal it is due to various conditions entirely independent of the gastric juice. When the latter is normal and in full activity, only the most prolific microbes—such as tubercle bacilli, the bacilli of anthrax, and perhaps the staphylococci—escape its destructive action; all others are destroyed in less than half an hour. Similar influences exist in the intestines, as proved by inoculation with the cholera bacilli.

TABLE No. 8.—*Showing the Unorganized Ferments Present in the Body and Their Actions.*

Fluid or Tissues.	Ferment.	Actions.
Saliva	Ptyalin	Converts starch chiefly into maltose.
Gastric juice	1. Pepsin	Converts proteids into peptones in an acid medium, certain by-products being formed.
	2. Milk-curdling.	Curdles casein of milk.
	3. Lactic-acid ferment.	Splits up milk sugar into lactic acid.
	4. Fat-splitting.	Splits up fats into glycerine and fatty acids.
Pancreatic juice	1. Diastasic, or amylopsin	Converts starch chiefly into maltose.
	2. Trypsin	Changes proteid into peptones in an alkaline medium, certain by-products being formed.
	3. Emulsive (?)	Emulsifies fat.
	4. Fat-splitting or steapsin	Splits fat into glycerine and fatty acids.
	5. Milk-curdling.	Curdles casein of milk.
Intestinal juice	1. Diastasic	Does not form maltose, but maltose is changed into glucose.
	2. Proteolytic	Fibrin into peptone (?).
	3. Invertin	Changes cane-sugar into grape-sugar.
	4. Milk-curdling	In small intestine (?).
Blood Chyle Liver (?) Milk Most tissues	Diastasic ferments	
Muscle Urine	Pepsin and other ferments	
Blood	Fibrin-forming ferment	

Judging from the results of experiments made by Zagari, Straus, and Wurtz, who exposed various pathogenic organisms, among others that of tuberculosis, to the action of gastric juice, we must come to the conclusion that, so long as the gastric juice retains a sufficient degree of acidity, tuberculosis of the alimentary canal will be unlikely to occur.

Albumin and the Gastric Juice.—Another property of gastric juice in infants is the transformation of albumin in the following manner: (1)

albumose; (2) then peptone, (3) and lastly syntonin. It is thus apparent that, although the infantile stomach plays a subordinate rôle as a nourishing organ, it cannot be denied that fluid substances—like water, a solution of salt, and solution of sugar—are absorbed, and in a less degree albumin also. The relative size and capacity of the stomach prevent the function from being as thoroughly developed as in the adult.

Stomach Capacity.

At birth the infant's stomach has a capacity of from 9 to 11 drachms, or 35 to 43 cubic centimeters. At the end of one month it is about 2 ounces, or 60 cubic centimeters.

At the end of three months the gastric capacity is about four times the amount at birth. The very rapid increase from birth to this time soon ceases, and the stomach capacity grows in size, but at a much slower rate of development (Baginsky).

The series of experiments at the Children's Hospital of St. Petersburg, made by Ssnitkin, showed that the weight, and not the age, determined the capacity of the stomach, and should be used as a guide for the quantity of infant-food required.

If the normal (initial) weight of an infant is 3000 to 4000 grams, or about 6.6 to 8.8 pounds, then $^1/_{100}$ part, plus the daily increase in weight added, which normally amounts to from $^2/_3$ to 1 ounce, would give the amount of food required.

Biedert also regards the body weight as an important factor in determining the amount of milk to be given. Baginsky argues that, while this rule will hold good for a great many infants, he must insist upon relying upon the *scales* to show just how much nutriment has been digested, and thus a regular system of weighing, plus the inspection of the stools, will aid in establishing the quantity of food necessary. "There is no unanimity among experienced clinical observers upon the subject of infant-feeding." The majority of clinicians the world over order cows' milk in varying dilutions. Some use the cereals—like wheat, barley, rice, and farina—to dilute and subdivide the curd. Other clinical observers—Budin and Variot, French observers—*advise giving infants, at birth, whole milk; that is, pure, undiluted cows' milk.*

The following illustrations will serve to show *the difference in the capacity of infants' stomachs at various ages, taken by the author at the morgue of Bellevue Hospital.*

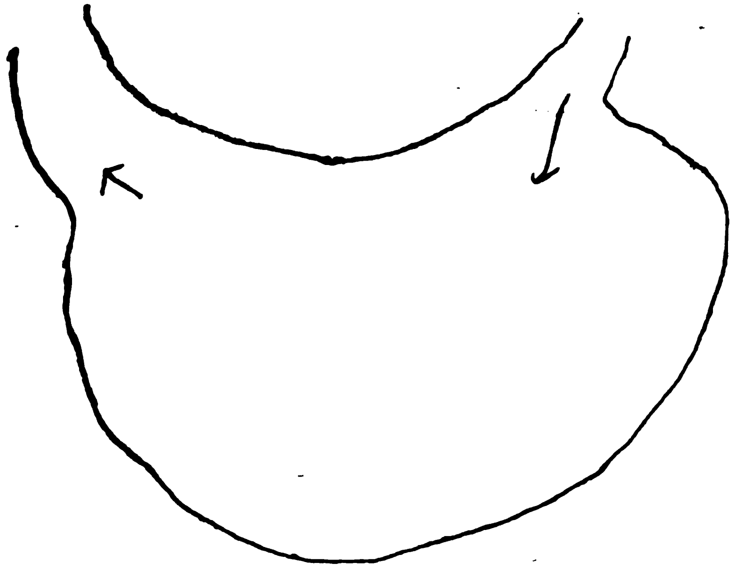


Fig. 21.—Infant's Stomach, Actual Size. From a Case of Malnutrition. Capacity, About 2 Ounces. When Stomach was Filled it Held 4 Ounces Easily. (Author's Collection.)

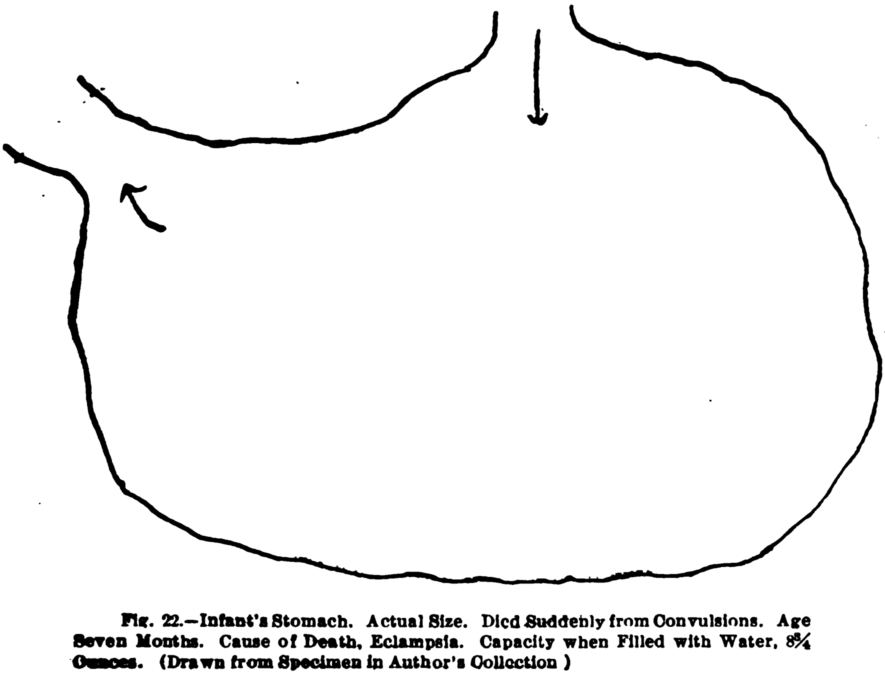


Fig. 22.—Infant's Stomach. Actual Size. Died Suddenly from Convulsions. Age Seven Months. Cause of Death, Eclampsia. Capacity when Filled with Water, 8¾ Ounces. (Drawn from Specimen in Author's Collection)

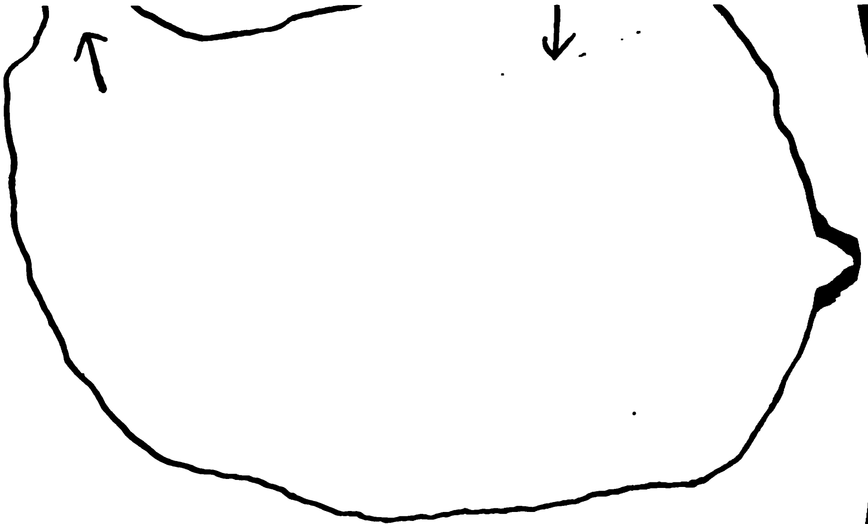


Fig. 23.—Infant's Stomach. Capacity, 10 Ounces. Age of Child, Eleven Months. Cause of Death, Enteritis. (Drawn from Specimen in Author's Collection.)

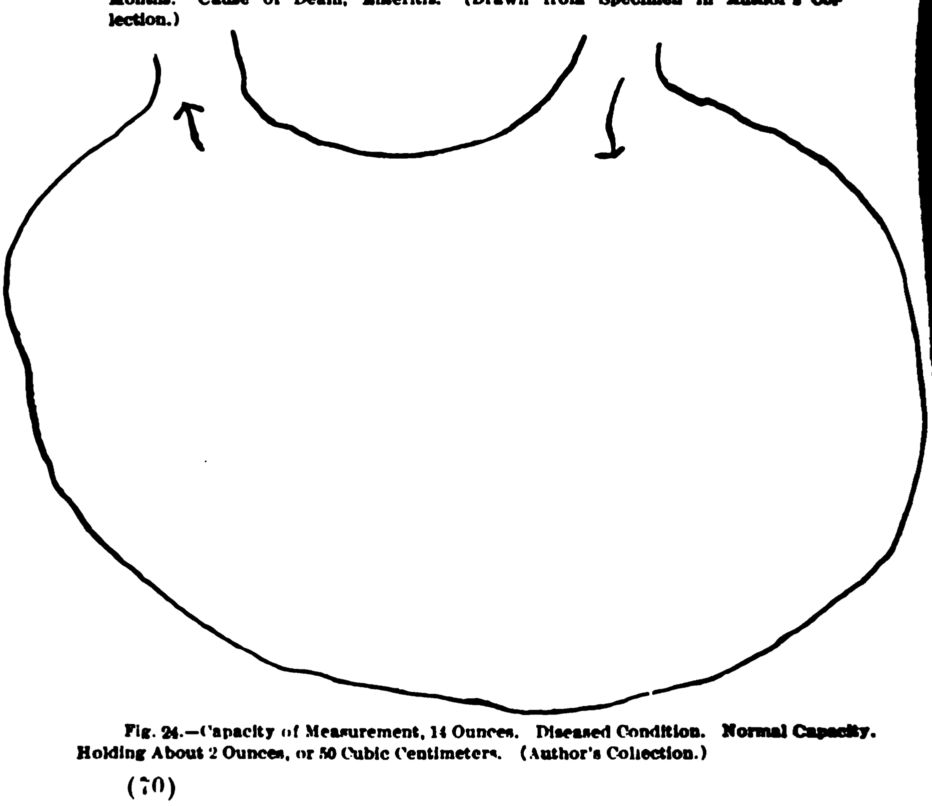


Fig. 24.—Capacity of Measurement, 14 Ounces. Diseased Condition. Normal Capacity. Holding About 2 Ounces, or 50 Cubic Centimeters. (Author's Collection.)

SIGNIFICANCE OF VOMITING.

The symptom of vomiting needs careful interpretation. When the symptom occurs in gastric and intestinal conditions it is not difficult to make a diagnosis. It is important to note the frequency of vomiting: Does or does it not occur after every feeding? Has the infant had a stool during the last twelve hours? Intestinal obstruction is usually accompanied by frequent vomiting and the absence of stool. Intestinal worms are frequently a cause of vomiting. Likewise, an early symptom of appendicitis is vomiting. Feeding high percentages of fat may provoke vomiting; likewise, excessive quantities of sugar may produce vomiting as well as colic from flatulence. Pyloric spasm and pyloric stenosis are usually accompanied by vomiting.

Vomiting is a reflex act. It can be produced directly by irritating the stomach, as, for example, when mustard is swallowed. It can also be produced by a great many vegetable products, as, for example, by ipecac root. Mineral poisons, such as sulphate of zinc or turpeth mineral, or sulphate of copper, will produce violent emesis. Bacterial fermentation from stagnant food can also produce vomiting. These causes are, therefore, direct in their action and produce immediate results. It is a great mistake to look upon the stomach or the stomach contents as the etiological factor in vomiting, and as the only organ capable of producing emesis.

The toxins in the blood of many acute infectious diseases produce vomiting. One of the earliest symptoms of scarlet fever is vomiting. Several days before the eruption of scarlet fever appears, vomiting of a most violent nature generally occurs. This is, no doubt, due to toxæmia.

An irritation of the vagus or the pneumogastric nerves can result in vomiting. Any irritation brought about through the central nervous system will cause vomiting; thus it is that shock, fright, or disturbance of metabolism may produce vomiting of a most serious nature.

Giddiness, caused by swinging or a rolling motion, as on a ship, may produce cerebral hyperæmia, ending in vomiting. When a child falls on the back of its head and produces concussion of the brain, we have continued vomiting as a first symptom. When vomiting persists in spite of gastric treatment, meningeal disease should be suspected. In meningitis, especially in hydrocephalus, vomiting is a frequent symptom. The writer does not presume that any physician will diagnose brain fever, scarlet fever, or gastric fever by the single symptom of vomiting.

On the other hand, it is well to know that vomiting, with a suspicious rash and a sore throat, will strengthen the suspicion of an existing scarlet fever. A rule followed by the writer is to lay considerable stress on vomiting. It means nothing if we are dealing with a spoiled stomach following a large dish of plum pudding. But woe to the physician who gives a good prognosis where vomiting is an early manifestation of intracranial disease that ends fatally.

Stomach Washing.

When vomiting persists, especially in pyloric spasm, stomach washing (lavage) is indicated. One teaspoonful of bicarbonate of soda added to one pint of warm water can gradually be introduced by pouring through a funnel attached to a soft-rubber or flexible catheter. While many clinicians advise placing the child in an upright position during the lavage, I have found, especially in younger infants, that it is easier to fill the stomach and syphon off the gastric contents while the child is flat on its back. In the dorsal position the tube can be gently but quickly forced over the tongue, down the pharynx, through the œsophagus, into the stomach. In washing the stomach the funnel, holding three or four ounces, should be filled, and raised above the level of the stomach. After the fluid has entered the stomach, we can syphon off the contents by lowering the funnel below the level of the stomach. This process should be repeated several times or until the return flow from the stomach is clear.

It is advisable to wash the stomach, preferably before food has been given. In obstinate vomiting lavage should be performed daily. No force should be used in pushing the tube into the stomach. The eyelet of the catheter should be carefully inspected to see that there are no sharp edges. An injury to the gastric mucosa by laceration with a sharp border of a stomach-tube will certainly result in an erosion.

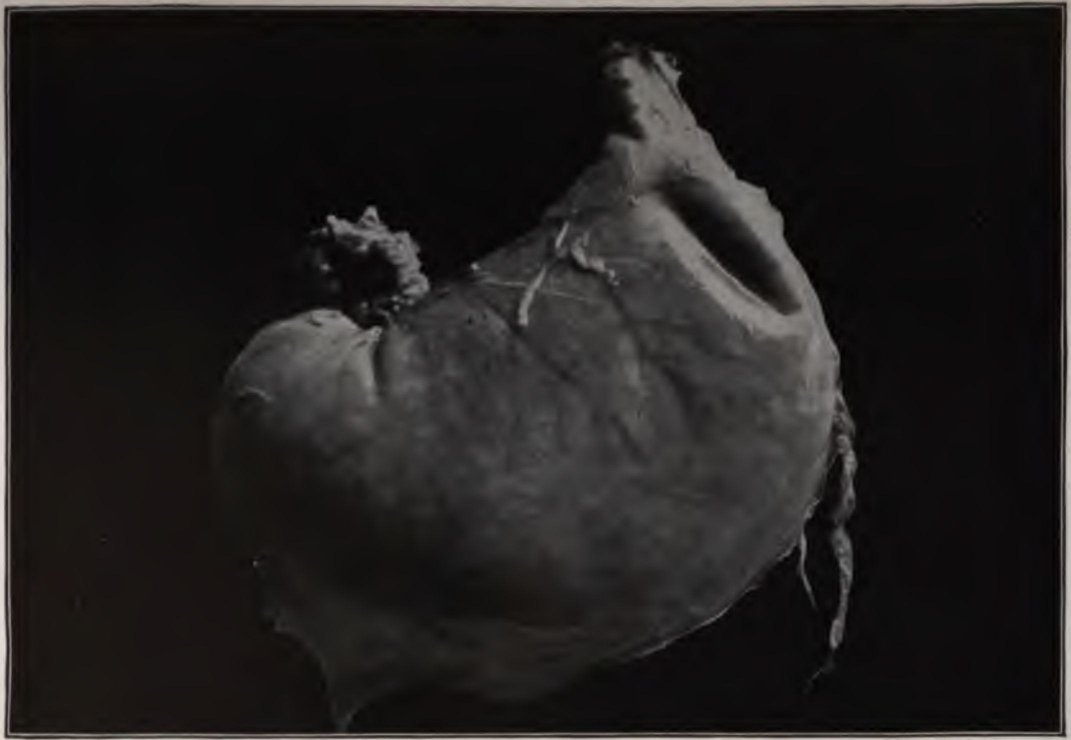
The Abdomen.

The abdomen of a child is comparatively larger than that of the adult. Especial attention should be given to the condition of the abdomen; for instance, a retracted abdomen is usually seen in meningitis. (See chapter on "Meningitis.") A distended abdomen is frequently seen in rachitis (pot-belly). (See article on "Rachitis.") A very prominent abdomen is seen in chronic peritonitis, to which I direct attention in the special article dealing with that subject.

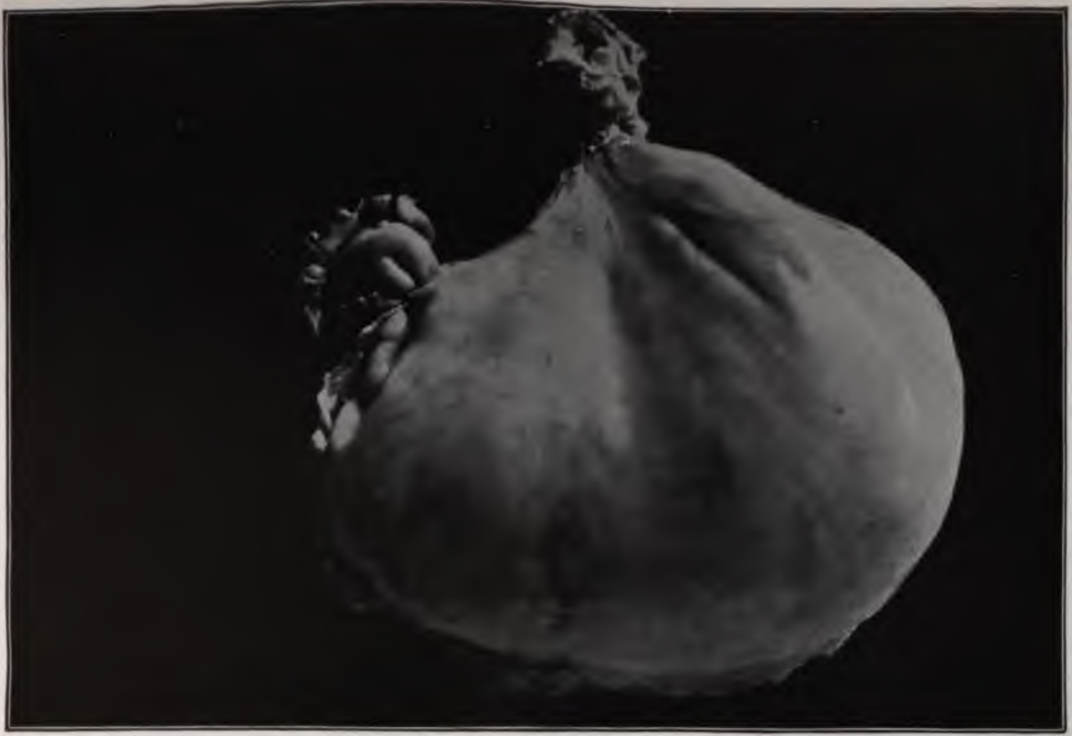
The Intestines.

Small Intestine.—At birth the length of the small intestine is nine and one-half feet. The length of the intestine may, however, vary with the size of the child. In the duodenum Brunner's glands are found. Below the duodenum Peyer's patches are found. The most important physiological function of the small intestine consists in aiding the assimilation of food

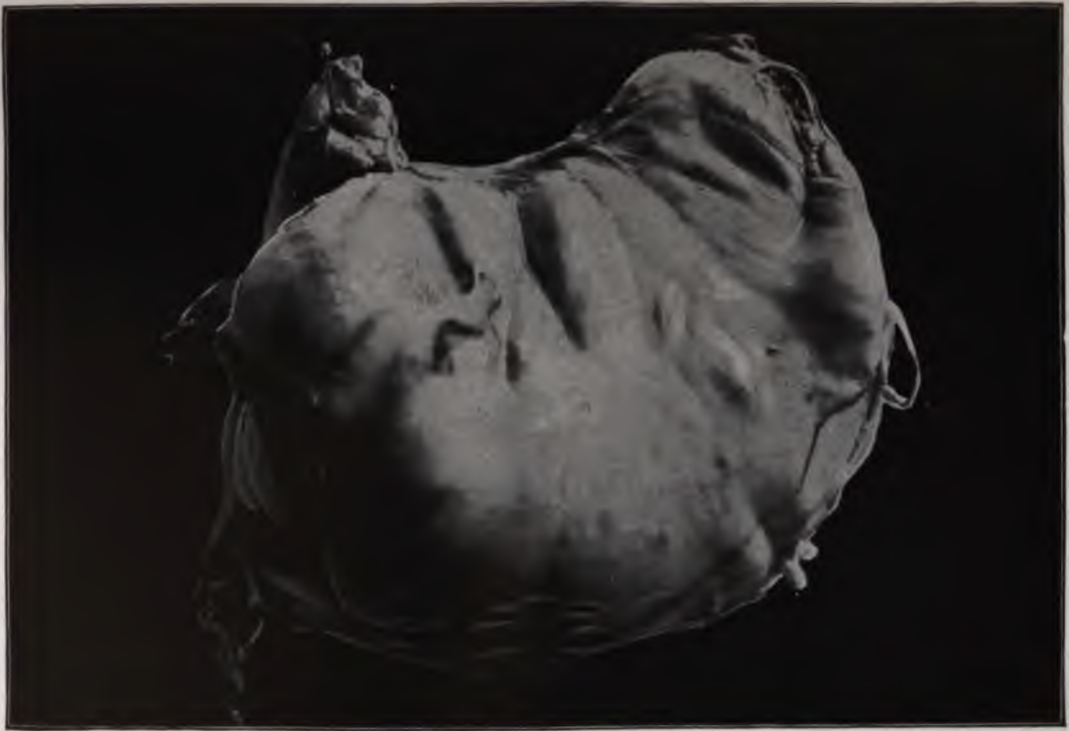
PLATE IV



Infant's Stomach. Actual size. One month old. Cause of death, malnutrition. (Original.)



Infant's Stomach. Actual size. Age, seven months. Cause of death, eclampsia, convulsions. Capacity, 8 $^3/_4$ ounces. (Original.)



Infant's Stomach. Actual size. Age, eleven months. Capacity, 10 ounces. (With kind assistance of Dr. J. Henry Wurthman.) (Original.)

by the action of the pancreatic juice and other secretions. The emulsification of the fat in the food takes place in the small intestine.

Length of the Intestine.—The relative length of the intestine in nurslings is greater than in adults, so that the intestines are six times as long as the body. Forster believes this is one reason why nurslings receive more nourishment from milk than do adults. The small intestine develops during the first two months of life more than the large intestine, and after the second month the reverse is true. The duodenum remains relatively the longer until the end of the fourth month. The transverse colon is the widest and most elastic portion of the large intestine. The continuation of the large intestine in infants, into the rectum, is indicated by a narrowing at this point.

Large Intestine.—According to Treves, the large intestine measures:—

At birth	1 foot 10 inches, or	55 centimeters
At 12 months	2 feet 6 inches, or	76 centimeters
At 6 years	3 feet, or	91.5 centimeters
At 13 years	3 feet 6 inches, or	107 centimeters

Course of the Colon.—From the right iliac fossa up to the liver, then transversely across the abdomen to the spleen and then downward, terminating in the rectum. The colon forms at its first turn the hepatic flexure, at the spleen the splenic flexure, and finally the sigmoid flexure. The curve of the sigmoid flexure occurs in the left iliac fossa.

Sigmoid Flexure.—The anatomical illustrations of the sigmoid flexure (see article on "Chronic Constipation") are important to remember in view of the mechanical cause of constipation so frequently seen in young children.

The transverse colon, when distended with gas, is very easily mapped out by percussion.

The Cæcum.—Dwight found the cæcum completely covered with peritoneum in 33 out of 37 cases in young children. Treves states that in 100 cases observed by him he found the peritoneum infolding the cæcum in all of these cases on its posterior surface.

The cæcum occupies a higher position anatomically in a child than in adult life.

Vermiform Appendix.—Behind the cæcum lies the vermiform appendix. It is important to remember that it lies in the line *midway between the umbilicus and the crest of the ilium.* When the appendix is inflamed and swollen it can frequently be mapped out by rectoabdominal (bimanual) palpation.

Formation of Gas in the Intestine.—When we consider the lesser development of the muscles of the intestine, we can readily understand that peristaltic movements are more irregular and less forcible, and that the muscles possess less tone; on this account *there is a larger amount of gas contained in the intestine, which constantly distends it.* Thus it is apparent why the abdomen always appears larger in the infant in proportion to the other parts of the body.

Action of Intestinal Muscles.—The action of the intestinal muscles is chiefly to transport the food by a series of peristaltic movements. Parts of the intestine are active, while others remain passive. Heubner maintains that post-mortem examinations never show all parts of the intestine in the same condition, owing to the irregularity of the muscular movements.

Development of Glandular System.—The development of the glandular system in infants is very poor, whereas the *lymphoid tissues and follicles are comparatively well developed.*

Lieberkühn's glands are fewer in number than in adults, whereas the Brunner glands in the duodenum are numerous and well developed.

The Secretory and Absorbing Power of the Epithelium and the Glands.—Heubner maintains that the secretion takes place from cells, located in the small intestine, which are scattered about and are few in number, whereas in the large intestine they are far more numerous.

Absorption of Fat.—The absorption of fat takes place through the intestinal epithelium in the duodenum and jejunum; the glands also participate in this action. According to the histological investigations by Baginsky, the real absorbing system of the intestinal wall is found in the connective-tissue bodies of the mucous membrane of the infantile intestine, in which are located lymphatic vessels connected with the larger lymph-channels of the intestine. The physiological and chemical functions are much less developed in infants than in adults, because the intestinal glands are relatively less developed.

BREAST-MILK AND WET-NURSING.

COLOSTRUM.

Colostrum is found in the breast of a woman several hours after giving birth to her infant. It resembles milk, but is a much thinner fluid. It is always the forerunner of a healthy normal secretion of breast-milk, which usually appears on the third day after the birth of the infant.

Colostrum corpuscles have been described by Czerny as lymphoid cells, whose function is to absorb and reconstruct unused milk globules and to convey them from the milk-glands into the lymph-channels. These corpuscles usually disappear in one week or ten days after birth. When colostrum corpuscles are present after one month, then such milk will cause gastric disturbances. It is a wise plan to examine the milk microscopically whenever the slightest evidence of gastric or intestinal disturbance is noted.

According to Baginsky, colostrum contains large quantities of serum-albumin, and is also very rich in fat and colostrum corpuscles, and contains a large quantity of salts. The last *two ingredients* are supposed to be the cause of the *laxative action* of the colostrum.

When colostrum corpuscles persist in breast-milk, in spite of the regulated diet and the hygienic condition of the mother, then breast-feeding must be discontinued. A very fretful and nervous mother will frequently have colostrum corpuscles in her milk. An instance of this kind was seen recently by me. Substitute feeding will frequently modify this condition unless there is a specific cause for the same. When a nursing mother is very weak and anæmic after her confinement, then iron is indicated. I saw a case in consultation recently in which the combined use of fresh air, cereals, and iron changed a thin milk containing colostrum corpuscles into a thick, creamy milk in less than one month. Continued menstruation or uterine disorder with disease in the endometrium may cause profound anæmia and thus render breast-milk very thin. Such milk is totally unfit for the proper nutrition of the infant.

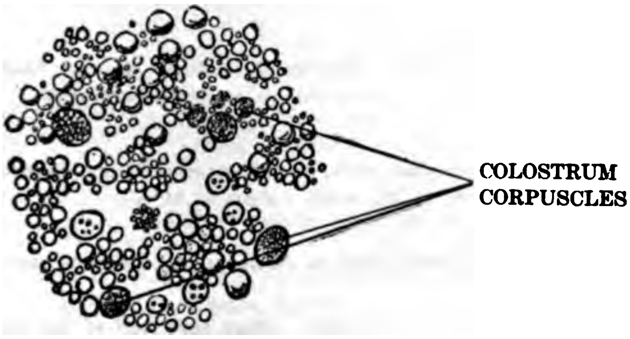


Fig. 25.—From a drop of milk on the third day after delivery. (Zeiss Ocular 4, dd Lens.) (Original.)

BREAST-MILK.

According to Pfeiffer, human milk contains, several days after the birth of the infant, a large quantity of albumin, salt, and a small quantity of fat. He also found that *the longer the period of nursing, the smaller the quantity of albumin,* which, in the eleventh month, sinks quite low. There

Table No. 9.

Properties of Human Milk.

Appearance.	Bluish, semitransparent, no odor, sweetish.
Specific Gravity.	1026 to 1036.
Reaction.	Amphoteric, relation of alkalinity and acidity as 3 to 1.
On Boiling.	Does not coagulate, and forms a very thin, hardly-perceptible skin.
Coagulates.	At ordinary temperature after several hours.
Coagulates on addition of Lab-ferment.	Coagulates imperfectly in small isolated flakes, which do not precipitate as a uniform coagulum.
Fat.	Yellowish white, resembling cow-butter. Specific gravity at 15° C., 0.966. Melts at 34° C.
Varieties of Fat.	Butyrin, palmitin, stearin, olein, myristin, caproin.
Behavior of Various Acids.	Few volatile acids. More than half of the non-volatile consist of oleic acid.
Milk-plasma Casein.	Difficult to precipitate with acids and salts. The precipitate redissolves in excess of acids. During pepsin digestion there is no pseudonuclein produced.
Composition of Albuminoids.	Lactalbumin and lactoglobin; relation of casein to albumin, 0.5 to 1.2 or 1 to 2.4; of the 1.3 per cent. albumin, there are 64 parts of casein, and 37 parts of globulin and albumin.
Solids.	Less solids than in cows' milk, especially CaO—P_2O_5.
Quantitative Analysis, according to Soxhlet.	Water, 87.41; albuminoids, 2.29; fat, 3.78; milk-sugar, 6.21; solids, 0.31.
Bacteria.	Usually sterile, rarely staphylococcus albus and aureus.

TABLE NO. 10.

PROPERTIES OF COWS' MILK.

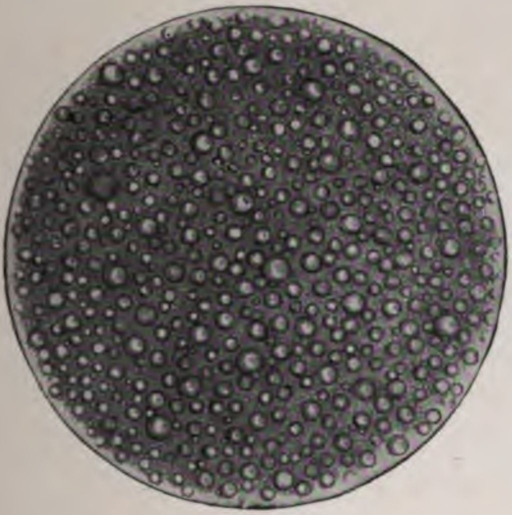
Appearance.	Opaque white or whitish yellow, in thin layers bluish white, slight odor, faintly sweet.
Specific Gravity.	1028 to 1036.
Reaction.	Amphoteric; relation between alkalinity and acidity, 2 to 1; Soxhlet maintains that cows' milk contains three times the acidity of human milk.
On Boiling.	Does not coagulate and forms a skin containing casein and lime-salts.
Coagulates.	Coagulates very soon, owing to lactic-acid formation.
Coagulates on addition of Lab-ferment.	Coagulates to a solid mass at body-temperature, from which a yellowish fluid can be expressed.
Fat.	Yellowish-white mass. Sp. gr. at 15° C., 0.949 to 0.996.
Varieties of Fat.	Palmitin, olein, stearin, myristin, caprilin, caprin, caproin, butyrin, laurin, lecithin, cholesterin, and yellow coloring matter.
Behavior of Various Acids.	Volatile fatty acids, about 70 per cent.; not volatile, 0.3 to 0.4 per cent. of oleic; the remainder consists of palmitic and stearic chiefly.
Milk-plasma Casein.	Easy to precipitate with acids and salts; excess of acid does not dissolve; belongs to the nucleo-albumin group.
Composition of Albuminoids.	Less lactalbumin and globin; the largest portion of the albuminoids is casein. Relation of casein to albumin, 0.3 to 3.0, or 1 to 10.
Solids.	Cows' milk contains more solids than human milk.
Quantitative Analysis, according to Soxhlet.	Water, 87.17; albuminoids, 3.55; fat, 3.69; milk-sugar, 4.88; solids, 0.71.
Bacteria.	Contains all milk bacteria, frequently also pathogenic bacteria, as typhoid, diphtheria, and tubercle bacilli, etc.

TABLE No. 12.—*Comparative Analyses of Breast-mi*

Human Milk.	Fat.	Proteins.	Sugar.	Ash.	
Normal Milks.					
Average	2.90	3.07	5.87	0.16	A.
Average	3.68	1.70	7.11	0.20	Mar
Average	2.67	3.92	4.37	0.14	Vern
Average	3.52	2.01	5.91	....	Ham
14 analyses from same woman	2.53	3.42	4.82	0.23	Simo
Mean of 6, aged 23-33 years.	3.82	2.04	5.93	0.42	H.-G
Average	3.55	1.52	6.50	0.45	Chev
From woman aged 18......	3.20	2.39	6.83	0.29	J. B
From woman aged 33......	2.99	2.51	6.51	0.30	J. B
4 days after delivery......	4.30	3.53	4.11	0.21	Clem
9 days after delivery.......	3.53	3.69	4.30	0.17	Clem
12 days after delivery......	3.34	2.91	3.15	0.19	Clem
Average of 84 samples.....	4.13	2.00	6.94	0.20	Leeds.
Average of 107 samples....	3.78	2.09	6.21	0.31	König.

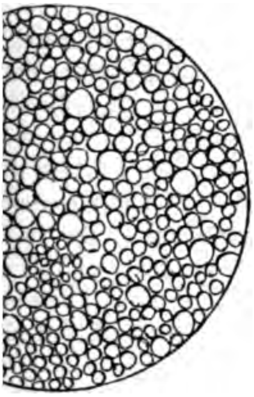
Specimen of Breast-milk for Chemical Examination.—Aft
possibly the fourth, day the average healthy woman secret
gradually becomes normal in quality and quantity, depen
general condition. It is usual for an infant to lose some w
its first week of life, owing to various physiological chang
which is, no doubt, the deficiency in the quality and quantit
It is a safe plan, and one that I have always urged, if a
to send a specimen of breast-milk to a chemist and submit
a chemical analysis. In some women a specimen can be examin
baby is one week old; in others it is better to wait until th
weeks. We then would have a proper working basis, and kno
much fat, carbohydrate (sugar), and albuminoids—including
are feeding. Noting the weight of the child, its sleep, its dig
and frequency of its stools, we can easily see in one week ho
infant has gained in weight, and its general condition. To take
it is advisable to have all utensils absolutely clean; hence the fo
would be suggested: Boil an ordinary one or two-ounce bottle
which a pinch of baking soda has been added, for about on
Then place the bottle in plain water and boil again for a half-h
turn the bottle upside down, and allow it to drain and dry. In t
we can completely sterilize the inside of the bottle and avoid conta

Withdraw a sample of breast-milk by means of a breast-pu
which has served the author very well is known as the Florence br
and has a glass mouth-piece. (See Fig. 33.) Another form is a
breast-pump, having a rubber bulb. Compressing this bulb, w
about an ounce or more in from five to ten minutes. This mil
poured into the bottle, and well corked, and set in a refriger



A Drop of Normal Breast-milk from a Primipara. (Original.)

e. Milk will keep for many hours in this way. My plan has m the chemist the day previous to submitting the sample, so e withdrawn from the breast early in the morning—at about sent to the laboratory at once. The result of the analysis can n the evening of the same day or on the following day in all point worth noting is that the very first milk should not be infant should be allowed to suck at the breast for about two re pumping the sample. After this the breast-pump should be ive minutes to procure the middle milk; then the infant can to the breast to finish nursing.


-Specimen of Breast-
Young Mother, 17 years
ıra. Baby four months
; gaining in weight;
; sleeps well. Chemical
: Fat, 2.60; sugar, 6.50;
l. Milk looks creamy,
mæ are well filled.
(Original.)

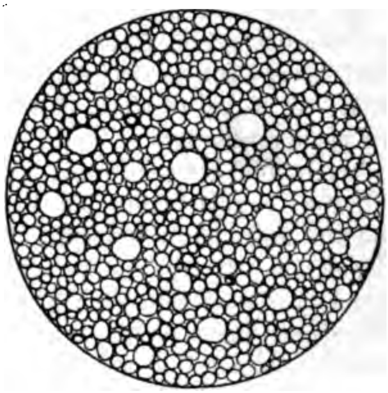


Fig. 28.—Specimen of Breast-milk, Illustrating Very High Fat, Causing Gastric Disturbance. Baby gaining; vomits frequently; stools yellowish; bluish-white milk; child sleeps well; excessive fats. Chemical analysis: Fat, 5.0; sugar, 6.50; proteins, 1.74; ash, 0.20. (Original.)

tion of Breast-milk.—A method which can be employed in ice is recommended by Friedmann (*Deut. med. Woch.,* Jan. It is more easily done than a chemical analysis, and serves pose. It consists of determining by microscopical examination nd character of the milk corpuscles. It is an advantage first miliar with the normal conditions by repeated examinations rom healthy mothers, those whose children are well and show ickets or glandular enlargements. The milk corpuscles can to size into three groups, large, small, and intermediate, of tter are most numerous. The small ones are also found in numbers, but the large ones are comparatively scarce, a mag- 100 diameters showing only about 10-20 in the field. If these be more numerous the milk is found to be too fatty and more difficult to digest. A preponderance of the small corpuscles usually means a chronic dyspepsia for the nursing infant. An accurate count can be made with some form of blood-counting apparatus, but the latter is not essential. The proximity of the corpuscles to each other also serves as a guide to the grade of the milk, the more sparsely distributed the globules and the greater the number of the small ones, the poorer the quality of the milk. The method also serves to differentiate the character of the milk from the two breasts. In the selection of wet-nurses it is obviously useful.

Reaction of Human Milk.—Bordet has called attention to the precipitation of the albuminoids in milk when it is added to the serum in animals which have been previously injected with milk from the same source. Schlossmann found, further, that the fluid from a hydrocele on a breast child was also able to precipitate the albuminoids in human, but not in cows' milk. According to Moro, if a few drops of human milk are added to a few cubic centimeters of fluid from a hydrocele, in a very few minutes the hydrocele fluid coagulates into a solid mass. This reaction does not occur with cows' or goats' milk. The hydrocele fluid evidently contains fibrinogen, and the milk, fibrin ferment. The combination of the two induces the coagulation. It occurs even with minute quantities of the milk; all the serum in contact with the milk coagulates around it. The same reaction occurs when human serum is added instead of the milk, but much less pronounced and much slower, and the same difference is observed when the human milk is boiled or long heated. Particles of coagulated ox blood also induced a slow and partial coagulation.

It seems to be established that the mucous membrane of the stomach secretes an enzyme or fat-splitting ferment. Ibrahim discovered a lipolytic ferment in the stomach of a nursling.

Diastatic Enzyme in Human Milk and in the Stools of Nurslings.—Dr. Ernest Moro reports from Escherich's clinic, in Graz, that:—

First.—Human milk contains, normally, an intensive, saccharifying enzyme, which is not found in cows' milk.

Second.—This enzyme is found in the stool of breast-fed children and signifies a more pronounced diastatic action of the same.

Third.—This diastatic enzyme is secreted by the glands of the intestine. Parts of the same can be found in the pancreatic juice of the new-born.

Fourth.—The intestinal contents and fæces of nurslings contain at birth, as a rule, a diastatic enzyme, which increases in the first few weeks of life.

Immunity Conferred by Breast-milk.—The nursing infant is usually exempt from infectious diseases, although we do find an occasional case of infection in a breast-fed infant. Such is the exception rather than the rule.

Read chapter on "Measles" for cases of immunity seen by me in the Riverside Hospital.

There seems to be an immunity conveyed to the infant through its other's milk. These substances which convey immunity have been udied by Brieger and Ehrlich. During epidemics nursing infants rarely ccumb to infections. The following case will illustrate the manner in hich immunity can be "conveyed" through the milk:—

A woman suffering with diphtheria was four months pregnant at the time of fection. She was injected with 2000 units of antitoxin and recovered in about days. Several months after the birth of her child, an older child in the family s attacked with diphtheria, which required several injections of antitoxin, also tubation, to relieve a severe form of croup. Although the new-born infant was the same room it did not show any signs of the disease. This was most likely due the immunity conferred upon the child by its mother through her breast-milk.

To Preserve Human Milk.—Human milk collected from various omen may be preserved for many weeks if treated in the following anner: Test the milk with litmus paper to be sure that it is amphoric or alkaline. If it is not alkaline, add a few drops of bi-carbonate soda solution. Then add 0.2 cubic centimeters of a concentrated ·30 r cent. perhydrol solution. This quantity of perhydrol is sufficient r 400 cubic centimeters milk. The milk is then thoroughly shaken so at the perhydrol produces its chemical effect. On close inspection all bubbles can be seen in the milk. Lastly the milk is heated for ten inutes in a water bath to 120 degrees F. Milk so treated by Dr. eierhoffer was tasted by me in the Children's Wards of Dr. Paul Moser, Vienna, and seemed perfectly fresh although it was one month old.

TABLE No. 13.—*Five Analyses of Human Breast-milk.*[1]

	Case No. 1. Per cent.	Case No. 2. Per cent.	Case No 3. Per cent.	Case No. 4. Per cent.	Case No. 5. Per cent.
ater	86.2	89.0	87.0	88.6	88.1
roteins	1.7	1.3	1.6	1.1	1.1
actose	6.5	5.8	6.6	6.7	6.2
at	5.4	2.5	3.8	2.7	4.1
lts	0.2	0.3	0.2	. .	. .

Case I of Table 13 showed symptoms of gastric disturbance, chiefly omiting, caused by "feeding high fat." The mother of the infant believed at by eating frequently and of very rich food, she would benefit her baby, us her milk showed 5.4 per cent. of fat.

By reducing her diet, excluding meat and too many eggs, discontinuing coholic and malted beverages, her milk improved, the fat being decreased. xercise, such as walking, was ordered for the mother.

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[1] **Analyses made by Lafayette B. Mendel, Yale University, New Haven, Connecut.**

TABLE No. 14.—*Table Showing Analyses of a Normal, a Poor, an Over-rich, and a Bad Human Breast-milk.*[1]

	Normal Milk. Exercise and Good Food.	Poor Milk. Poor Food. (Low Fat. High Protein.)	Over-rich Milk. Rich Food. No Exercise. (Excess of Fat)	Bad Milk. Wet-nurse Menstruating. (Low Fat. Low Protein.)
Fat	4.00	1.00	6.59	.65
Sugar	6.50	6.50	6.69	6.50
Protein	1.75	2.36	1.16	1.12
Mineral Matter...	.19	.24	.19	.11
Total Solids	12.44	10.10	14.63	8.38
Water	87.56	89.90	85.37	91.62
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Specimens examined by Mr. Bailey, chemist of the Pediatrics Laboratory.

BREAST-FEEDING.

During the first and second months feed every three hours, but never oftener.

During the day awaken the child every three hours, to be nursed; but during the night let the child rest as long as it appears satisfied. This rule applies to healthy children only. In sickness special rules for feeding are required. If the child thrives and gains in weight, then it is advisable and in the interest of the mother and child to have an interval of from seven to eight hours at night; thus Bouchut advises the last feeding between 10 and 11 P. M., and the first feeding at 6 A.M. If the child is restless, then turn it from side to side: thus, changing its position and giving it one or two teaspoonfuls of boiled water will frequently satisfy it and prolong its sleep.

TABLE No. 15.—*Time for Feeding.*

From Birth to 3 Months Old.	3 to 8 Months Old.	8 Months Until 1 Year Old.
6.00 A. M.	6.00 P. M.	6.00 A. M.
9.00 A. M.	9.30 A. M.	10.00 A. M.
12.00 Noon	1.00 P. M.	2.00 P. M.
3.00 P. M.	4.30 P. M.	6.00 P. M.
6.00 P. M.	8.00 P. M.	10.00 P. M.
9.00 P. M.	12.00 Midnight	
12.00 Midnight		

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[1] I am indebted to the chemist of the Walker-Gordon Laboratory for a series of chemical analyses herein reported.

The first three or four days require *special* feeding methods. On the day of the birth, the exhaustion of the mother and presence of colostrum, besides the normal deficient quantity of food in the breast, demand large intervals of rest. Thus for the first three days (unless the milk-supply is profuse) putting the infant to the breast once in six hours is sufficient; if, however, the supply of milk is ample, then we can follow the table given above and nurse the infant every three hours.

MATERNAL FEEDING.

The feeding of infants will always be a live question. It is simplified when maternal means are used. The plea, therefore, to resort to human milk feeding means not only to obviate the difficulties of home modification of cows' milk and the dangers of contamination, but it also means that we give the infant the proper start in life. The foundation must be strong, and such foundation depends on the growth and development of the organs, due to proper metabolism of fat, carbohydrate, and especially of the protein. Human milk contains an assimilable form of iron besides a given quantity of salts to be utilized in the growth of bone and teeth; it is this lack of iron in cows' milk that renders it less nutritious.

The virtues of human milk have been extolled from many infectious hospitals, where it is found that there is more vitality in an infant that nurses the human breast than in the infant reared by artificial means. The susceptibility to infections is far less in the infant nursed at the human breast than in the infant brought up by artificial means. What applies in infancy applies equally well in later life and there is no question in my mind that the breast-fed infant, being the stronger, will also be able to withstand the infection of tuberculosis in later life. Our plea should, therefore, be primarily for the education of the mother, especially so for the mother who believes the modern fad of artificial feeding is equally as good as the natural method.

Human milk contains a diastasic ferment. Peroxydase is found in cows' milk. Many cases require but several months for a proper start in life. The most critical period of an infant's life is the first three months; hence it is imperative to start right.

An infant is not born with a diseased stomach: it is born with a healthy stomach, with normal digestion, and with power to assimilate almost any kind of food. Any one who will study the digestive conditions of the first six or eight weeks of infantile life, will find that almost every type of food will be assimilated. If an excess of fat or protein is ordered the same will not show marked systemic disturbance until after the first six or eight weeks of life. Feeding formulæ which would give rise to marked gastric disturbance during the third and fourth months are frequently well borne and apparently digested during the first month of life. This is because we are dealing with a healthy gastric mucosa plus normal secretions, and because pathological conditions have not yet developed. This accounts for the tolerance of high fats and high protein in early infancy.

Casein is a nucleoalbumin in a neutral combination with lime. Such casein will be precipitated on the addition of acid. It is not dissolved in milk, but exists therein in a colloid form. In addition to casein we have lactalbumin, which corresponds to serum-albumin. We also have lactoglobulin; both are also present in colostrum.

The albumin of milk if injected into a rabbit produces a serum which can give us the Bordet reaction. Alexins and antitoxins, in addition to substances contained in the internal secretions, agglutinins, complements, are found in human milk and transferred thereto by the serum. According to Ehrlich, these substances give marked resistance and a distinct passive immunity to the infant. During the last few years a study of the physiological requirements of the infant has demonstrated the fact that our feeding rules and feeding intervals have been wrong, that the tendency to overfeed exists, and that the interval for proper assimilation between meals is too small; hence we must change our methods to give the infantile stomach less work and at the same time sufficient food for its development.

An infant should nurse at birth seven times in twenty-four hours, or once every three hours. At one month the interval of three hours should be increased to three and one-half hours; thus, no more than five feedings by day and no feedings at night should be given. In special cases the infant may require feeding every two hours, but bear in mind that less frequent feedings stimulate a better flow of milk, give the infant a longer interval for digestion and thus an increased appetite.

When scanty supply of human milk exists, then mixed feeding, alternate breast and bottle, may be given, but it is important to look upon the human milk as the most precious food, and every drop to be valued far more than the cows' milk that we use to supply the deficiency of the human breast. A close study of infantile stools during maternal feeding has shown that there are frequently tendencies to either constipation or the reverse, loose or greenish stools. Neither of the above conditions should be regarded as serious factors and by no means should we look upon the human breast with disfavor even though the stools do not correspond to that desired yellowish, pasty consistency. [illegible] alkalinity of the intestine. [illegible] alterations in the milk, and [illegible] proper function of the glands [illegible] may not perform its function. Such [illegible] to discard a human [illegible]

Another point, and one frequently submitted, is, shall a woman continue to nurse her infant if she menstruates? to which one should reply that the condition of the infant is not affected by the presence of the function of menstruation, and human milk may be utilized as if the same were absent. The bacterial content of the intestine of an infant nursed at the human breast has far less pathogenic bacteria than the infant fed on cows' milk.

SUGGESTIONS FOR BREAST-FEEDING.

The mother or wet-nurse should always sit upright, be it at night or during the day, while nursing the infant.

Danger of Suffocation.—A great many cases are on record where the mother or wet-nurse has fallen asleep while nursing and smothered the infant. For this reason it is important that the infant should sleep in its own crib or bed, and should never sleep with the mother or nurse.

Shall an Infant Receive but One or Both Breasts for One Meal?—This depends on the infant's appetite. Some infants appear satisfied after nursing from one breast, and will let go of the nipple and fall asleep. Lightly tapping the cheeks of the infant will awaken it, or the withdrawal of the nipple from the infant's mouth will frequently arouse it to continue nursing. If, however, the infant will not renew its nursing, and still continues to sleep, and if the infant has nursed steadily for ten minutes, then the sleep should not be disturbed.

Length of Time for Nursing.—A good plan is to note the time when the nursing act commences and stops. No infant should nurse longer than twenty minutes, whereas frequently ten or fifteen minutes will suffice. If an infant nurses more than twenty minutes, say thirty or forty minutes, then we may be sure that the breast-milk is deficient in quantity and a specimen should at once be submitted for a proper chemical examination.

SCANTY BREAST-MILK REQUIRING MIXED FEEDING.

When there is a deficiency in the quantity of breast-milk, but the quality is good, then it is advisable to feed the infant alternately with breast-milk and bottle-milk. At the same time it is advisable to direct attention to the mother's general condition, and see if we cannot tone her up, and thus improve both quality and quantity of her milk. Frequently a subnormal or an anæmic condition requires iron. A day's outing to the country or seashore, with moderate exercise, will stimulate and increase the flow of milk. Every drop of breast-milk is so precious that no infant should be deprived of it, and wise is the physician who will insist upon giving all breast-milk. When there is deficient lactation, supply the deficiency by giving a properly diluted milk or cream mixture, adapted for the age and weight of the infant.

To Increase the Quantity of Breast-milk.—Some of the galactagogues have given me satisfaction, in addition to a nutritious diet, such as meat, milk, and eggs. A preparation on the market known as *Nutrolactis*[1] has proven a most valuable galactagogue. It is given in tablespoonful doses three times a day. This will not only stimulate the quantity, but also the quality, of the milk. Grandin and Jarman, in their text-book on "Obstetrics," recommend the strong infusion of galega officinalis when the flow of milk is scant. This is to be ordered in tablespoonful doses three or four times a day. Malt tropon, one teaspoonful three times a day, after meals will stimulate the flow of milk.

Somatose in Cases of Deficient Lactation.—"A primipara who secreted only a limited amount of colostrum, and kept that up so that the child was crying from hunger and had to be artificially fed, was put upon somatose, 4 teaspoonfuls a day, and in three days the patient secreted a sufficient quantity and quality of milk to satisfy the child, which increased one-fourth of a pound regularly each week. It seemed difficult to induce the mammary glands to perform their proper function; but when somatose was given there was a normal supply of milk, and the child was properly nourished without artificial feeding."

DO DRUGS TAKEN BY A NURSING WOMAN AFFECT THE BABY?

Physiological experiments have frequently demonstrated the fact that a great many drugs can be given to an infant through the milk; thus, opium and morphine and narcotics in general do affect the infant, when taken by the mother. Baginsky calls attention to this fact in his text-book on "Diseases of Children": "Alcohol, when taken by the mother, is transmitted through the milk, but not in very large quantities. The following is a list of drugs which have been found in milk: The purgative principles of rhubarb, senna, and castor-oil; the metals, antimony, arsenic, iodine, bismuth, lead, iron, mercury; the volatile oils, like copaiba, garlic, and turpentine; also salicylic acid, and the iodides and bromides." Do not give cocaine, chloral, atropine, or hyoscyamus. Care is to be used with the following: Digitalis, antipyrin, and ergot. An unpleasant flavor can be imparted to the breast-milk by the mother or wet-nurse eating onions, turnips, cauliflower, or cabbage.

DISTURBANCES DURING BREAST-FEEDING.

Quite frequently we meet with gastro-intestinal disorders in infants that are wholly breast-fed. These disturbances are due to (*a*) insufficient exercise; (*b*) faulty diet; (*c*) extreme nervous irritability; (*d*) menstruation while nursing; (*e*) physiological changes in the woman, causing an [illegible] of ingredients. Some of the causes just mentioned can easily [illegible]. On the other hand, a very nervous woman, whose anxiety keeps [illegible] during the day and awake at night, will hardly be adapted for breast-feeding, and the sooner the infant is removed from such a breast, the better for the infant.

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[1] Sold in all drug stores.

The following cases will illustrate the above conditions:—

An infant was nursed by its mother. The mother was extremely nervous, fretful, did not sleep at night, and nursed her child too often.

The infant suffered with colic, had greenish, cheesy stools, and did not gain in weight. Had indigestion and all evidence of intestinal colic. The case was seen by me through the courtesy of Dr. A. A. Richardson, of New York City. The physician assured me that the mother would not leave her home, and that she had had no outdoor exercise, no fresh air, and nothing but the constant worry of a sick, crying baby which she nursed as best she could. A chemical examination of the breast-milk showed the following:—

Fat	1.20
Sugar	6.50
Protein	1.70
Ash	0.18
Total solids	9.58

Under the influence of exercise and careful diet the fat was increased. In this case we alternated breast and bottle feeding, and gave the child mixed feeding. A formula of 2 per cent. fat, 5 per cent. sugar, and 0.75 per cent. protein was prescribed at the Walker-Gordon Laboratory.

An infant one month old was seen by me in the family of Dr. J. Grosner, of this city. The infant had been vomiting, had had colic, and was very restless. The mother was very nervous, but had an abundance of milk. From the history I learned that the child had had an explosive vomit, the food coming out, besides large quantities of gas. There were five to seven stools in twenty-four hours. The bowels moved at each nursing. The chemical examination of the breast-milk showed:—

Fat	4.00
Sugar	6.50
Protein	3.05
Ash	0.30
Total solids	13.85

From this examination it can be seen that for a baby six months old there was an excess of fat and also a very high percentage of protein.

An infant one to two months old requires 2 per cent. of fat. Note also a normal infant receives between 1 and 1½ per cent. of protein, while this child received more than 3 per cent. of protein. There being a profuse secretion of milk, the child received far more than it could digest in both quality and quantity. The feeding interval was lengthened, and the time of nursing was reduced to five minutes, whereas until the appearance of vomiting the child nursed twenty minutes. An ounce of sterilized water was ordered immediately after each nursing, hoping to thus dilute the milk. This method proved successful.

A Case of Prolonged Lactation, Showing Deficiency of Nutriment.—A child about 1 year old, was brought to me with the following history: It has no teeth Can neither stand nor walk. It is colicky. Does not sleep well. Does not gai

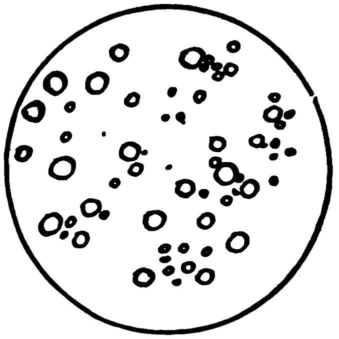

Fig. 29.—Showing a Drop of Milk under the Microscope. Note the poor character of this emulsion, the uneven fat-globules, and their irregular size and distribution. The infant nursed with the above milk was rachitic and colicky. Although 15 months old, no tooth had appeared. The mother of the infant states that she menstruated every twenty-one or twenty-two days since her infant was born—during this present nursing period. (Original.)

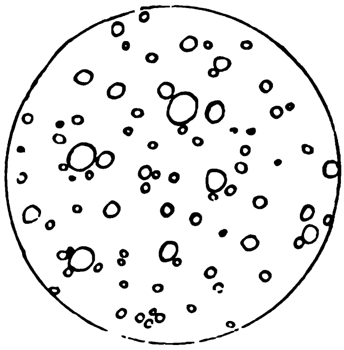

Fig. 30. This Drop of Breast-milk is from a very Anemic Woman. The child was extremely emaciated, had greenish stools and colic, and was always crying. Note the uneven character of above emulsion, when compared with Plate VII. The infant was poorly nourished; had rickets and marked cranio-tabes. Mixed feeding was resorted to, with decided improvement. (Original.)

weight. The child was nursed every three or four hours. The mother was ve nervous, and *menstruated almost every month* during lactation. The chemical an ysis of the milk gave:—

Fat	1.22
Sugar	7.07
Protein	0.98

was very evident that this baby was receiving poor milk, ***very low fat,*** and ***protein.*** The infant was weaned, artificial feeding was prescribed, and the mediately showed a gain in weight. The symptoms of colic disappeared.

***stration of Prolonged Lactation Without Apparent Harmful Effects.*—An** **teen months old was brought to me for the relief of constipation. It had , was able to stand and walk, and was beginning to talk. The infant was st-fed. The analysis of the milk gave the following:—**

Fat	2.86
Sugar	6.78
Protein	1.76

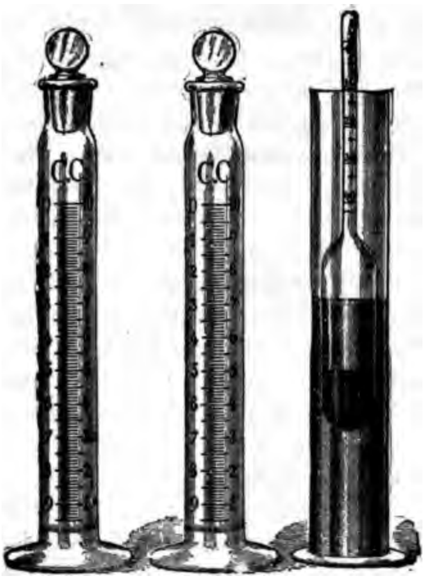

Fig. 31.—Holt's Milk Test Set, for Testing Human Milk.

e infant's weight in this case was normal, and I must regard this ed lactation, showing such good results, as an *exception* rather than

Additional Foods During the Nursing Period.

tween the sixth and eighth months, if the infant is thriving and in weight, cereal feedings should be added. A small saucer of or cream of wheat steamed with water, for two hours, and served immed milk and a small quantity of sugar, should be given before A.M. feeding. This cereal feeding may be given daily if there are ptoms of starch indigestion, such as flatulence, colic, or distended n, noted. At twelve months the yolk of a raw egg may be added to al. Additional foods which may be given to an infant after the teeth r between the seventh and twelfth months, are: Two ounces of d beef juice over a small saucer of steamed rice; a piece of rusk or biscuit after the bottle. A coddled egg at noon may be tried when the infant is one year old, and if it agrees, it may be ordered every other day.

THE MANAGEMENT OF THE NIPPLES BEFORE THE BABY IS BORN.

It is very important during the last few months of pregnancy to devote considerable time and attention to the condition of the nipples. If these be found long and round, well projecting, then it is advisable to try to harden them, because the irritation from the child will cause considerable trouble unless we seek to prevent this.

Oni, in treating the question of sore nipples, said at the Medical Society,[1] that one out of every two nursing women was affected with lesions of the nipples. The determining cause of the fissures was maceration of the epiderm under the double influence of the saliva of the infant and the milk which flowed during the intervals. The epiderm exfoliated and the derm exposed became excoriated; the lesion thus produced became infected, and, instead of healing, progressed in extent. The predisposing causes were short and inextensive nipples and want of cleanliness. The primiparæ were affected with fissured nipples to the extent of 59 per cent.

The prophylactic treatment consisted in astringent lotions during pregnancy, while after delivery the nipple should be washed with boric acid lotion before and after suction, the application of an antiseptic dressing during the intervals of nursing. The curative treatment, to be radical, consisted in the suspension of nursing, which, although excellent for the mother, would be deplorable for the child. The list of agents employed against the fissure was very lengthy, indicating their uselessness.

In summer cold water will be found more agreeable, with a small quantity of alcohol. If the nipples are very small and flat, and do not protrude properly, then suction by means of a breast-pump, applied directly over the breast, will draw them out. In some instances an ordinary clay pipe which has a smooth bowl, the bowl to be laid over the nipple and the stem to be sucked or drawn, is satisfactory. This is to be repeated every few days. A few minutes of drawing out will suffice until the nipples are sufficiently prominent. Biedert[2] gives the following prescription for hardening the nipples:—

Tannic acid	1 teaspoonful
Red wine	8 ounces

If red wine is not handy, then substitute brandy in its stead. This is to be applied after thorough washing with soap and water, and removing crusts, if they are present.

Tender Nipples.—If, while nursing, the nipples crack and blood oozes from them, or if, from irritation of the child's gums biting them, the nipple

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[1] Paris Cor. Med. Press and Circular.

[2] "Kinderernaehrung," fourth edition, 1900, page 110.

ore, then it is a good plan to allow the child to nurse through a nipple- ɜld. (See Fig. 32.)

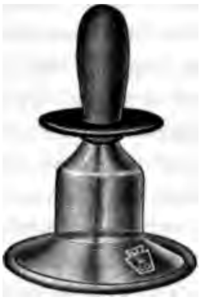

Fig. 32.—Nipple-shield for Relief of Tender Nipples.

Nipple-shields can be used during the nursing act, and immediately **reafter** the following salve can be smeared on the nipples:—

℞	Zinc oxide	1 drachm
	Vaseline	1 ounce

TREATMENT OF TENDER NIPPLES (GARRIGUES).

℞	Orthoform	1 drachm
	Lanoline	1 ounce

M. Sig.: Apply.

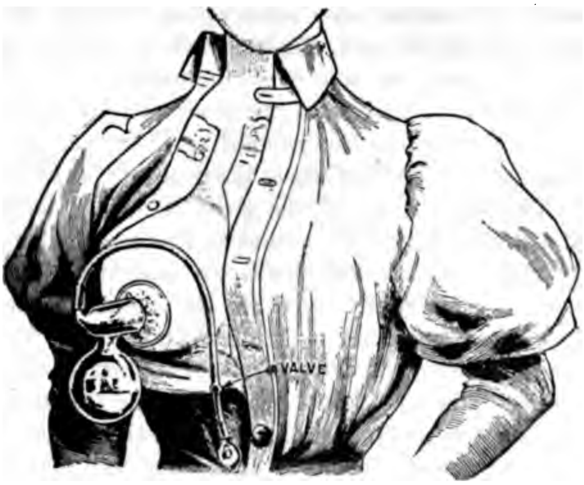

Fig. 33.—Breast-pump.

BREAST-PUMP.

The breast-pump (Figs. 33 and 34) is a valuable addition to the nur- y. It should be kept scrupulously clean by immersing it in boiling water ıtaining a pinch of table-salt. In drawing a specimen of breast-milk for ·hemical examination the breast-pump is very useful. If an infant is ill and refuses the breast—as, for example, if it has rhinitis or cold in the head, nasal obstruction, preventing it from breathing while the nipple is in its mouth—it generally will take the breast and immediately let go of it again. If the breast-pump is properly applied, and the required quantity of milk drawn off, the infant can be fed slowly with a spoon.

In a serious condition—as, for example, in a severe case of pneumonia with loss of appetite—the life of the child may depend on forced feeding. This is described in the section on "Gavage." It is very important to have the cup or any other receptacle into which we draw the breast-milk properly sterilized; otherwise the breast-milk will be infected in the same manner as is described in detail in the chapters on "Cows' Milk" and "Bottle-feeding."

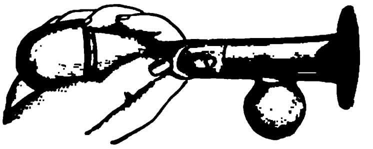

Fig. 34.—Breast-pump.

Massage of the Breast During Lactation.

Caking.—The "caking," or hardening, of the breast is not due to curdling of the milk. This never takes place within the milk-tubes. Neither is it due to the presence of milk, for as a rule no milk is formed until nursing begins, or if any, but a very small amount. The hardening of the gland is due to the congestion of the blood and lymph, and therefore massage should be directed to the removal of these, and likewise should be centrifugal in direction, and not aim to the removal of the milk by centripetal stroking. The blood-supply of the gland is mainly derived from the subclavian and axillary arteries; the venous outflow and the lymph discharge are by corresponding channels, and this is the anatomical basis for action. The massage should begin gently below the clavicle and in the axilla, and gradually encroach more and more on the mammary region. By this method a hard and painful breast is rendered lax and comfortable without the discharge of any milk. The writer does not recommend this treatment where there is infection or true inflammation, as in mastitis; in such conditions rest is indicated, and nothing should be done which will tend to spread the infection.[1]

The Diet of a Nursing Mother.

Immediately after the birth of the child the exhausted condition of a woman following labor will certainly call for rest; hence sleep is imperative, after which some form of stimulation is required. This can best be accomhed by giving at intervals of several hours good, wholesome food, as cken broth or beef broth, weak tea, or strained gruel. It is unnecessary state that each woman's case and her former habits must be taken into nsideration in prescribing a diet. If labor has been normal, then the nourhment will stimulate the milk. If warm liquids are not well borne, then old drinks like buttermilk, koumyss, zoolak, or iced tea should be emloyed. Iced champagne will frequently do more good to allay gastric irritaility than all medication. Raw milk in combination with seltzer or limewater is indicated. In some instances ice-cream will aid nutrition and alleviate gastric irritation. If the pelvic condition is normal, then it is wise not to give solid food for the first three days, but, rather, stimulate the milk-glands by giving meat broths, farinaceous gruels, and by all means milk. Zwieback soaked in milk or in tea is highly nutritious and easily digested. Other nutritious foods are calfsfoot jelly and chicken jelly.

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[1] See an elaborate paper on this subject by Bacon in American Journal of Obstetrics.

After the third day, if the pelvic organs are normal, it is wise to consider the action of the bowels. If the bowels have not moved by this time, then buttermilk added to the diet or stewed prunes or peaches, baked apples, or grapes will aid in establishing a movement of the bowels.

If the milk is scanty and the bowels have not moved, then the best remedy is a large tablespoonful of palatable castor-oil, modified to suit the taste by the addition either of lemon juice or orange juice, or by adding several drops of the ordinary spirits of peppermint. After the bowels have been evacuated and the general condition warrants it, then a diet consisting of the following is indicated:—

BREAKFAST, 7 TO 8 A.M.

Hominy and Milk.
Farina and Milk.
Rice and Milk.
Oatmeal and Milk.
Germea and Milk.
Cream of Wheat and Milk.
Some Stewed Prunes, Figs, or Peaches.
Stewed Apples.
Oranges.
Grapes.
Soft-boiled Eggs.
Poached Eggs.
Eggs on Toast.
Coffee and Milk.
Tea and Milk.
Cocoa and Milk.
Toast and Butter.
Stale Bread (2 days old), with Butter.

I do not advise meat or fish in the morning, unless the nursing mother as always been accustomed to this form of diet.

LUNCH, 12 TO 1 P.M.

Some soup made from meat, either veal, beef, mutton, lamb, or chicken, ontaining also some rice, barley, farina, sago, or hominy; it should not e highly seasoned, and should not be strained.

Fish, boiled or fried, and all shell-fish, particularly oysters, are very nutritious during the nursing period.

If the appetite warrants it, then a piece of steak or chop, roast beef, chicken (white meat only), or raw chopped meat, with bread and butter, is very nutritious.

EVENING, 6 TO 7 P.M.

A Bowl of Oatmeal Gruel.
Stewed Oysters.
A Drink of Milk.
Farina Pudding.
Rice Pudding.
Cornstarch Pudding.
Junket.
Cup of Tea.
Eggs, if desired.
Meat, if in the habit of eating it in the evening.

For Thirst.—Cool, filtered water, or the alkaline waters, like Seltzer and Apollinaris.

If the milk is scanty, the flow can be stimulated by drinking a cup of hot broth, made from beef, chicken or veal, lamb or mutton, several minutes before putting the child to the breast.

Alcoholic Drinks.—If the woman is in the habit of drinking wine or beer, then it is unwise to discontinue the use of alcoholics in moderate quantities while she is nursing. I have seen a great many women whose flow of milk was scant who immediately secreted an abundance of milk after partaking of a glass of beer, or ale, or porter with their meals for several days. Beer has a decided laxative effect, and this in itself is rather an advantage for those nursing mothers having a tendency to constipation. So my rule, therefore, would be to insist on abstinence from wine and beer unless the patient has been in the habit of taking it formerly.

FOODS TO BE AVOIDED BY A NURSING WOMAN.

Onions.
Garlic.
Cabbage.
Powerful Salts (Rochelle, Glauber, Epsom).
Ethereal Oils.
Butter and Fat moderately.
Candies and too much Sweets.
Large quantities of Potatoes.

Inability of Mothers to Nurse their Children.

It is surprising to note the gradual disappearance of the healthy, robust American mother who can perform the duty of nursing her infant. The following table will give a fair illustration of the conditions as they exist in New York City to-day:—

ABLE No. 16.—*A study of 1000 Mothers and their ability to nurse.*

Condition of Mother.	Able to Nurse 9 Months to 1 Year.	Able to Nurse 4 Days to 2 Months.	Primiparas.	Multiparas.
Living in Tenement Houses. Very Poor.	450[2]	50	210	290
Living in Healthful Portions of the City. Prosperous.	84	150	305	195

ording to the above statistics, 90 per cent. of the poor mothers are nurse their children, while only 17 per cent. of the rich mothers to perform the same duty.

WET-NURSE.

) important points are necessary: First, the presence of suitable :ond, the absence of a constitutional taint[3] or acute severe illness.

at to Examine.—First, the breasts for the quantity of milk present. ıst should be gently but firmly held at some distance from the thus we can learn by palpation regarding the parenchyma of the Also the quantity of milk, which, if expressed continuously about) thirty seconds, should flow in several streams.

gnant milk always shows sensitiveness on pressure. The statement nurse that her "milk is deficient in quantity" can be determined by g her to careful observation for several hours. After this time the he breasts should be expressed and the quantity determined.

ease with which milk can be expressed by palpation is an impor:or to note. If the milk flows with great difficulty, and requires ıble massage or pumping, then such a nurse is totally unfit to nurse , marasmic, or prematurely born babies.

ık or marasmic children require a wet-nurse having a plentiful ›f milk, so that the slightest effort while nursing will result in flow of milk.

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irty-five, or 7 per cent., of these mothers suffered from puerperal disease, epticæmia, mastitis, and kindred affections; hence, they were ordered by sicians not to nurse.

ree hundred and twenty-four infants were put on artificial feeding. This ›nsisted of feeding at the laboratory and home modifications. One hundred four of these infants were supplied with wet-nurses, owing to loss of yspeptic conditions, or marasmus during the bottle-feeding.

e blood of every wet-nurse should be examined for a Wassermann reaction. :r of transmitting syphilis demands this precaution.

Note if the expressing of milk causes pain; in the normal breast it should be painless.

It is not always the quality of the milk, but frequently the quantity, that is the cause of poor assimilation of a wet-nurse's milk. In such instances a chemical examination of the milk is imperative; by this we can learn exactly how much we feed an infant in percentages. If necessary, we can modify the milk (by proper wet-nurse diet) until the required percentages are attained.

The Child of a Wet-nurse.—Certain allowances must always be made for babies presented by wet-nurses—for instance, if the hygienic surroundings of a wet-nurse are very poor, and in addition thereto her food supply is meager, then a general anæmic appearance must be expected. On the other hand, a healthy, robust-looking baby must not be regarded as the criterion by which we should judge the wet-nurse.

The tricks of wet-nurses are manifold. Frequently they will procure a healthy-looking infant and pass it off as their own, in order that they may procure a position.

Another point is that they will frequently resort to stuffing their babies by feeding a bottle in addition to their breast-milk. Thus we must judge for ourselves the quality of the wet-nurse physically, and, most important of all, by the quality and quantity of her breast-milk.

Health of the Wet-nurse.—It must be borne in mind that the secretion of milk does not so much depend on her constitution as it does depend on her nervous system. Great importance must therefore be placed on the *uselessness* of hysterical or neurasthenic women for wet-nursing.

The phlegmatic temperament—the broad-shouldered, easy-going woman—pleasant and gentle-mannered, is the one most useful and best adapted for wet-nursing.

Wet-nurses with Goiter.—Bezy, of Toulouse, considers the question: Should women affected with goiter be accepted as wet-nurses? He does not think so because there is a certainty of danger for the infant, but because it is more prudent to exclude such women from nursing. In 1897 he saw a fatal case of tetany in an infant aged six months in which no cause could be found for the disease except the fact that the mother who nursed this baby had exophthalmic goiter. A few months later he saw another case of the same kind, and in 1898 he saw a case of tetany in an infant aged three months, who died after an illness of about forty days and whose nurse had simple goiter. The author thinks that tetany in infants may be of thyroid origin, and that the thyroid affections of the nurse are transmitted to the nurslings. He does not pretend to establish an invariable law, but simply wishes to call attention to the possibility of such transmission and to suggest further investigations on the subject.

We should reject a wet-nurse as unfit for nursing if she has:—

1. Enlarged cervical glands.
2. A goiter.
3. Diseased lungs, no matter how trivial.
4. Evidences of syphilis, such as a positive Wassermann reaction, or condylomata.
5. Condylomata on her genitals.
6. Mastitis.
7. Carious teeth.

Recurring menstruation is no contraindication for a wet-nurse. Some women are perfectly healthy and will menstruate regularly during their period of wet-nursing, without harm to the infant.

Erosions or fissures on the nipple should not be looked upon as contraindications for wet-nursing. Infants will thrive, although changed from one wet-nurse to another. Breast-milk is not uniform in its consistency. We know that its ingredients not only change from day to day, but that the milk varies several times a day. In spite of this fact children thrive, as was demonstrated by Schlechter, who used 400 children in the Vienna Foundling Asylum. Among these an epidemic of gonorrhœal ophthalmia developed, requiring isolation. Thus, several nurses were ordered to be isolated with these infected children, and it was noted that these children developed just as well in spite of the change from their previous breast-milk.

The mortality in this same institution resulting from feeding with sterilized milk has been entirely done away with since the introduction of wet-nursing.

Finally, it is important to note that it is the quality of milk, rather than the quantity, which determines the value of breast-milk.

When children are strong and well-built, and have a ravenous appetite, they *require a slow-flowing breast-milk,* as a rapid flow of breast-milk, aided by a hearty appetite, will tend to overload the stomach, and is one of the reasons for dyspepsia in young children.

It is a good point to try to secure a wet-nurse suckling a child about as old as the one we wish her to nurse, although it is quite common to find nurses who have older children than the one they wish to nurse, and to find the latter doing well.

The proof of the usefulness of the wet-nurse is the condition of the baby after some time. If the child thrives it will increase in weight. Hence scales must be frequently used. The milk should be examined by a chemist to determine the percentage of ingredients.

Especial note should be made of the percentage of fat and proteids.

If a very quick examination is required, then a microscopical examination of one drop of middle-milk will show the character of the fat globules.

The rough method of examination is useful when the life of the infant is at stake and it is necessary to determine quickly whether or not a given wet-nurse is suitable for an infant. If a baby suddenly appears colicky or does not gain in weight while wet-nursing, then a chemical examination of the breast-milk is imperative. We can frequently find an excess of fat or, more often, an excess of proteids as the cause of colic.

Von Bunge presents the results of an investigation in which he shows that the increasing inability of mothers to nurse their infants is a matter of inheritance. He obtained information relative to 665 cases with the following result: The daughter was able to nurse her offspring in 182 cases. The mother was able in 99.2 per cent., and unable in only 0.8 per cent. The mother was able in 237 cases. The daughter was able in 53.2 per cent., and unable in 46.8 per cent. The daughter was unable to nurse her offspring in 483 cases. The mother was able in 43.2 per cent., and unable in 56.8 per cent. The mother was unable in 147 cases. The daughter was unable in 99.3 per cent., and able in 0.7 per cent.

He concluded from the foregoing figures that inability to nurse is largely a matter of inheritance. Further inquiries also led him to believe that tuberculosis and nervous diseases were to a considerable extent associated with inability to nurse one's offspring. But much more prominent appears to be the relation of intemperance. Where the mother and daughter were both able to nurse he found that the fathers were usually at least moderate in the use of alcohol, and only in 4.5 per cent. were they hard drinkers. On the other hand, when the mother was able to nurse, but the daughter was unable, it was found that the father was often intemperate, and in 46.8 per cent. was an actual drunkard. In this inquiry the author considered those only as able to nurse who could nurse all their children for a period of nine months. All others as unable.

The control of wet-nurses was very adequately discussed[1] as a public prophylaxis. Many believed it was a matter that could be brought under the control of the law.

Dr. Petrini, of Galatz, professor at the University of Bucharest, prepared an elaborate report in which the prevalence of infection of syphilis by means of wet-nurses was demonstrated. He showed that its frequency varied widely in different countries, and hence an English view, for instance, of its comparative importance, drawn from the rarity of the infection in that country, was not a criterion for the whole, since it had been shown for Oriental lands, and even for Paris, that it was an important element.

He proposes a special medical service, working in co-operation with municipal authorities and having for its head a competent syphilographer. All children being nursed by wet-nurses should be inspected regularly by representatives of this bureau, and all wet-nurses should receive authorization for their calling by the same bureau after rigorous medical examination. Special provision should be made for syphilitic children.

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[1] Second International Conference for the Prevention of Syphilis and Venereal Diseases, held at Brussels, Belgium, September 1 to 6, 1902.

CLINICAL ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE VARIATIONS IN WET-NURSES' MILK.

The following case will illustrate the peculiarity of breast-milk in a wet-nurse:—

CASE I.—First examination of breast-milk showed:—

Fat	2.50
Milk-sugar	6.50
Protein	1.93
Mineral matter	0.21
Total solids	11.14
Water	88.86

When the wet-nurse was first employed, the infant gained more than eight ounces each week. Had yellowish stools, one or two each day. Slept well after nursing and appeared satisfied. Cried only at feeding time. No evidence of colic.

A second examination of the breast-milk was made to compare the character of the milk with that of the first specimen:—

Fat	2.10
Milk-sugar	6.50
Protein	1.41
Mineral matter	0.15
Total solids	10.16
Water	89.84

Two months later, same wet-nurse. Child's weight stationary. Green, curded stools; cries and has colicky pains. Restless at night. Wet-nurse is menstruating. Chemical analysis of milk shows:—

Fat	0.65
Milk-sugar	6.50
Protein	1.12
Mineral matter	0.11
Total solids	8.38
Water	91.62

With the aid of cereals and malt, also a change from the city to the seashore, the milk improved. The infant was more satisfied. The stools again assumed a yellowish color. One month after this building-up treatment, an analysis of the breast-milk showed:—

Fat	3.50
Milk-sugar	6.50
Protein	1.90
Mineral matter	0.19
Total solids	12.09
Water	87.91

When the infant was eight months old the secretion of milk was scanty, so that the breast was alternated with bottle-feeding. The general condition improved. The child was again satisfied. A chemical examination of the breast-milk showed:—

Fat	3.00
Milk-sugar	6.50
Protein	1.08
Mineral matter	.19
Total solids	10.77
Water	89.23

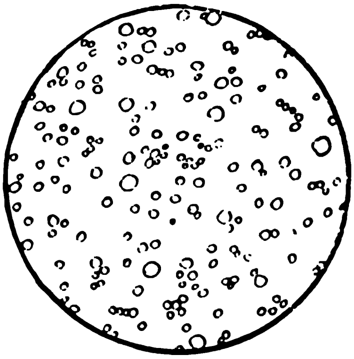
As the proteins were found to be very low, I ordered the white of a raw egg, soup, and expressed beef juice. When the child was nine months old it was necessary to wean it, as the wet-nurse had very little milk.

In this case the stationary weight, the colicky condition, and the character of the stools were important guides, and fully agreed with the analyses of the specimens given.

Case II.—*Colic.*—An infant five months old suffered with severe colic. It cried continuously, especially after nursing. Relief was afforded when castor-oil was given or when warm colon flushing was resorted to. Diluting the breast-milk by giving an ounce or two of barley or rice water immediately after each nursing seemed to modify, but not altogether relieve, this condition. The chemical examination of the milk gave:—

Fat	6.59
Sugar	6.69
Protein	1.16
Ash	.19
Total solids	14.63
Water	85.37

The *excessive amount of the fat was* evidently the cause of the trouble. The quantity of meat was reduced. Exercise was ordered and beer forbidden. In a few weeks the percentage of fat in the milk was greatly reduced, and the infant was more comfortable.



Case III.—Fig. 35.—Specimen of Breast-milk Taken from a Wet-nurse during Menstruation, Illustrating the Poor Character of the Emulsion. **(Original.)**

The infant was very restless, and had colicky attacks. Note the small, unevenly divided fat globules—irregular form of the larger globules. It appears to be a very watery emulsion. Chemical examination of the specimen showed: Fat, 1.60; sugar, 6.50; protein, 2.43. The baby did not gain during the whole week.

CASE IV.—*Good Milk in a Wet-nurse.*—In this case we have a child that was gaining in weight. Appeared satisfied after nursing, but had a tendency toward constipation. A chemical analysis of the milk gave:—

Fat	4.20
Sugar	6.50
Protein	2.80
Ash	.28
Total solids	13.78
Water	86.22

DIET OF A WET-NURSE.

The diet given for a nursing mother can also be used as a guide in choosing the diet for a wet-nurse. The greatest care, however, must be bestowed on the manner of living.

Manner of Living.—A wet-nurse that was a former servant, or worked out of doors, and is suddenly taken into this new mode of life and given charge of a baby, must have proper exercise. Otherwise she will very soon secrete milk which will be totally unfit for an infant, and as a result the child will probably have severe colic and irregular, cheesy stools; will vomit excessively, and will not gain sufficiently in weight. It is therefore important to try to adapt a wet-nurse to the same condition as existed prior to her pregnancy; so that both her manner of living and, chiefly, her diet shall not be different.

That alcohol may be eliminated from milk is shown by a case reported by Vallani. A nursing infant was seized with convulsions with great regularity on Monday and Thursday, but was quite well on other days. Investigation showed that the wet-nurse on Sundays and Wednesdays (her days out) was in the habit of drinking freely of alcohol. The curtailment of these privileges resulted in the disappearance of the convulsions.

Proper Rest.—To be equal to her task a nurse must be given plenty of sleep, if it is at all possible.

Adriance, in the *Archives of Pediatrics,* says:

1. Excessive fats or proteins may cause gastro-intestinal symptoms in the nursing infant.
2. Excessive fats may be reduced by diminishing the nitrogenous elements in the mother's diet.
3. Excessive protein may be reduced by the proper amount of exercise.
4. An excess of protein is especially apt to cause gastro-intestinal symptoms during the colostrum period.

5. The protein, being higher during the colostrum period of premature confinement, presents dangers to the untimely born infant.

6. Deterioration in human milk is marked by a reduction in the protein and total solids, or in the protein alone.

7. This deterioration takes place normally during the later months of lactation, and unless proper additions are made to the infant's diet, is accompanied by a loss of weight or a gain below the normal standard.

8. When this deterioration occurs earlier, it may be the forerunner of the cessation of lactation, or well-directed treatment may improve the condition of the milk.

METHODS OF CHANGING THE INGREDIENTS IN WOMAN'S MILK.

Rotch gives a condensed table for these changes as follows:—

To Increase the Total Quantity.—Increase the liquids in the mother's diet, especially milk (malt-extracts may be helpful), and encourage her to believe that she will be able to nurse her infant.

To Decrease the Total Quantity.—Decrease the liquids in the mother's diet.

To Increase the Total Solids.—Shorten the nursing intervals, decrease the exercise, decrease the proportion of liquids, and increase the proportion of solids in the mother's diet.

To Decrease the Total Solids.—Prolong the nursing intervals, increase the exercise, and increase the proportion of liquids in the mother's diet.

To Increase the Fat.—Increase the proportion of meat in the diet.

To Decrease the Fat.—Decrease the proportion of meat in the diet.

To Increase the Protein.—Increase the exercise up to the limit of fatigue for the individual.

It is wise in all cases of *disturbed lactation*, whether in maternal or wet-nursing, to make efforts in accordance with these rules to produce a milk that is suitable for an infant who is not thriving, before changing to any other method of feeding.

WET-NURSING.

It is an established fact that the best possible food for an infant is breast-milk. Where the mother of an infant is prevented from nursing her child, the next thing to be considered is wet-nursing. That nursing a child is an advantage to the mother is a well-known fact, inasmuch as it influences the contraction of the uterus and stimulates the circulation. Contrary to the belief that nursing a child is detrimental and contraindicated in women whose lungs are weak and who have a tendency to tuberculosis, it does them no harm, and, indeed, seems to do them good. This statement is borne out by the experience of Dr. Heinrich Munk, of Karlsbad, Austria, a specialist in the diseases of women.

are put into the foundling asylum. There they remain until they
e a place as a wet-nurse or as long as their services are needed in the
. When wet-nurses are taken from the foundling asylum, it is a
it occurrence to have those remaining therein nurse at least two chil-
nd frequently three, at one time. In this manner they dispense grad-
ith these wet-nurses without hurting the remaining children. Many
n die, some of them intrapartum in operative confinements, and the
(mothers of such children) are then utilized for wet-nursing. It
le to keep the children in the asylum until they have attained a little
kilograms (about 9 pounds), and they are then put out for further
g (artificial feeding), for which the city pays about 12 florins ($5.00)
h. The children remain usually until they are 6 years old, and are
iven back to their own mothers. Many of these children die; others
opted by those who have reared them, but the greater portion are
back to their own mothers. In Vienna there are about 10,000 con-
nts annually in the public institution. There are a great many cities
tria—like Innsbruck-Olmutz, Brunn, Linz, and Klagenfurt—where
re at least 200 confinements annually. In Vienna a wet-nurse receives
ins per month, for which she is sent (railroad expenses paid) to
r requires her services. She is taken on trial for fourteen days to see
is adapted for her place. A wet-nurse can be procured by sending a
m and a money order any day during the year. The customary wages
m 12 florins upward per month. Each wet-nurse is carefully exam-
y the professor before she is sent away. A great many families do
re to take a wet-nurse from an asylum, as they are usually women of
west walks of life, and they prefer, therefore, to take a woman who
en married. For this purpose agencies, duly licensed, exist. These
pply wet-nurses, and usually take orders in advance; thus a wet-

While it is a rule that a wet-nurse should be taken for an infant of the same age as that of her own, frequently wet-nursing of an infant at birth by a wet-nurse whose baby is three months old has not been followed by any bad results.

In New York we are at a decided disadvantage regarding wet-nurses. As no licensed agents exist, a few people procure wet-nurses from superintendents and house physicians of hospitals where obstetrical work is done.

The importance of properly supervising wet-nurses in the light of the danger of transmitting syphilis needs no further comment. The Health Department in every city should grant the use of their laboratories for a careful blood examination of each and every wet-nurse. It is as important to prevent the transmission of syphilis to a child as it is to give an immunizing dose of antitoxin to prevent diphtheria.

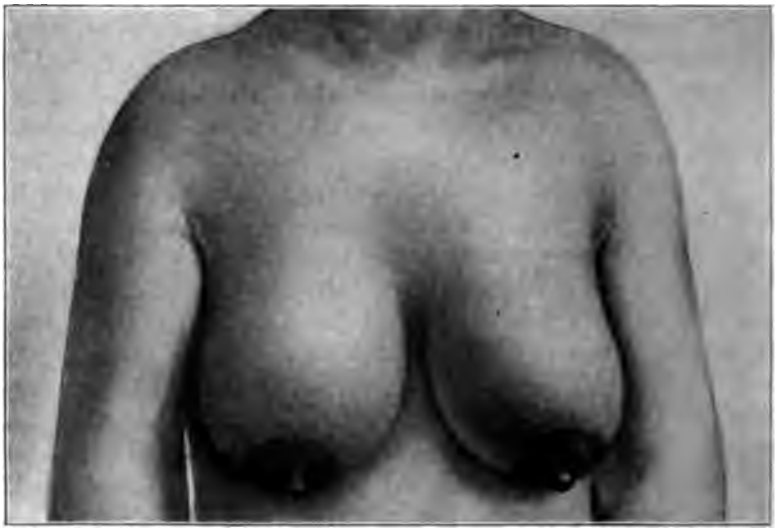


Fig. 36.—Pear-shaped Breasts, Best Adapted for Nursing. (Original.)

Being positive that the blood of the wet-nurse is not diseased, our next examination should be of the milk. A wet-nurse whose milk contains colostrum corpuscles should be rejected until the colostrum corpuscles have disappeared. The chemical examination of the milk should be made to ascertain the percentage of fat. Milk that contains more than 2 per cent. of fat should not be used. If the wet-nurse selected has an exceptionally large quantity of milk and is otherwise healthy, then the milk, if it contains too much fat, may be pumped off with a breast-pump and diluted with water, and so fed from a nursing bottle.

It is a pity that we have no municipal control for what the writer considers one of the most valuable adjuncts to our infant-feeding, and in the same manner such control would regulate the supply to such unlimited number that modern arrogance on the part of the wet-nurse would probably disappear.

The prices paid in New York are from $40 to $50 per month and board, and this price prohibits many an infant from securing the benefits of Nature's food. Let us hope for municipal regulation.

Weaning and Feeding from One Year to Fifteen Months.

When the teeth appear, weaning must be considered. If the nursing mother becomes pregnant weaning is imperative.

The condition of the infant, its sleep, its stool and its weight are factors that should influence the decision to wean. In some infants gradual weaning may be attempted, but in most infants successful weaning can best be accomplished by the absolute cessation of the breast.

If the infant has not gained in weight, puts its fingers into its mouth, cries or whines after the breast feeding, and if the stools are thin and watery, then weaning is imperative. Such an infant will gain in weight and be better satisfied when given the following formula:—

Whole milk	**6 ounces**
Sterile water	**2 ounces**
Malt sugar	**1 teaspoonful**

Heat until the steam rises. Feed the above quantity every four hours.

An infant nine months old may have a saucer of well-steamed (two hours) farina, hominy or Pettijohn, one-half hour before the second feeding each morning. The juice of one-half pound of broiled steak can be secured with a meat press and fed every other day at noon. A saucer of rice steamed in equal parts of milk and water, or half a cup of junket, may be fed before the 6 P.M. bottle. When constipation exists the juice of an orange or the pulp of stewed prunes pressed through a strainer may be given one hour before a milk feeding. Crackers, zwieback, and biscuits may be given, but all floury foods tend to constipate. In the bottle 8 ounces of whole milk steamed about five minutes may be given. The addition of one teaspoonful of Loefflund's malt soup to each bottle will offset constipation. If a tendency to loose bowels exists, the cream should be skimmed from the milk, and this fat-free milk boiled. The addition of limewater is indicated where looseness exists.

6.00 A. M.	**Breast**
9.30 A. M.	**Cereal**
10.00 A. M.	**Bottle**
2.00 P. M.	**Breast**
5.30 P. M.	**Cereal or junket**
6.00 P. M.	**Bottle**
10.00 P. M.	**Breast**

WEIGHT AND DEVELOPMENT.

When a child develops normally, it gains in weight. Breast-fed infants, as a rule, gain more than bottle-fed infants. The progress of an infant can be watched by a comparison with its weight. The moment a child's weight is stationary, the reason for the same should be ascertained.

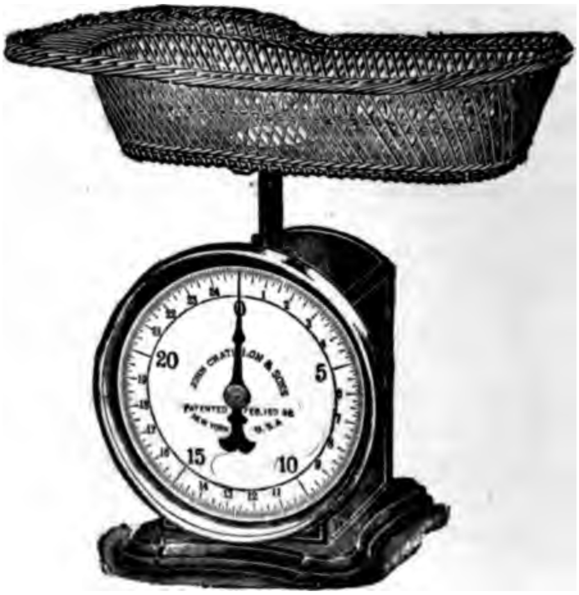


Fig. 37.—The Chatillon Scale is a very convenient basket scale. It is very useful in the nursery.

If the baby is breast-fed the milk of the nursing mother should be sent to a chemist for examination. (The details have already been described in the article on "Breast-milk.")

Disturbances of the mother interfering with proper lactation are at once evident in her milk. Such disturbances are: (*a*) menstruation; (*b*) general anæmia; (*c*) tuberculosis, and (*d*) pregnancy will frequently alter the percentage of the ingredients of milk so that a child will not receive sufficient nutrition.

The first evidence of such malnutrition will be seen on the scales. The child will not gain in weight, and frequently it will lose weight.

uch Should an Infant Weigh?—The average weight at birth s. Some children weigh considerably more and some less. A d double its weight at the end of five months, and treble its he end of the first year. It must not be supposed that because ighs less than this amount it may not be healthy. All fac- be taken into consideration and a child should be carefully o determine whether or no it is normal. Very many babies are ormal in weight, and still show marked rachitis. The very fat baby—usually supposed to be extremely healthy by the laity— in whom physicians most frequently meet with constitutional Thus, too much stress should not be put on the scales, for we hey have their limitations. In the beginning, or during the first months, a normal infant gains about 6 to 8 ounces a week. Dur- d month a child gains from 4 to 6 ounces per week, and after the n from 3 to 4 ounces per week.

ing Immediately After Nursing to Determine the Quantity of fant has Taken.—When scanty milk supply is suspected in either mother or in a wet-nurse, then we can, in some instances, resort immediately after the baby has nursed. It is understood that ust be weighed both immediately before nursing and then imme- r nursing. The difference in weight is the amount of milk

this may serve in some cases, the author has not found it very nd cannot recommend it, excepting in rare instances.

rell known that an infant whose stomach is filled requires rest g, and the less it is handled the less is the chance for expelling Thus, my advice is not to handle or fumble with a child after t rather aid Nature in resting an infant than provoke vomiting ary handling.

TABLE No. 17.

ble Showing the Gain of a Healthy Infant Fed at the Breast.

mal weight at birth, 7 .	Gain at the end of the first week, none.
ght when 2 weeks old, 7 . 6 oz.	Gain at the end of 2 weeks, 6 oz.
ght when 3 weeks old, 7 . 14 oz.	Gain at the end of 3 weeks, 8 oz.
ght when 4 weeks old, 8 . 6 oz.	Gain at the end of 4 weeks, 8 oz.

The following cases will serve to illustrate the weight of infants w various methods of feeding—(*a*) breast-feeding, (*b*) home modificati (*c*) laboratory feeding:—

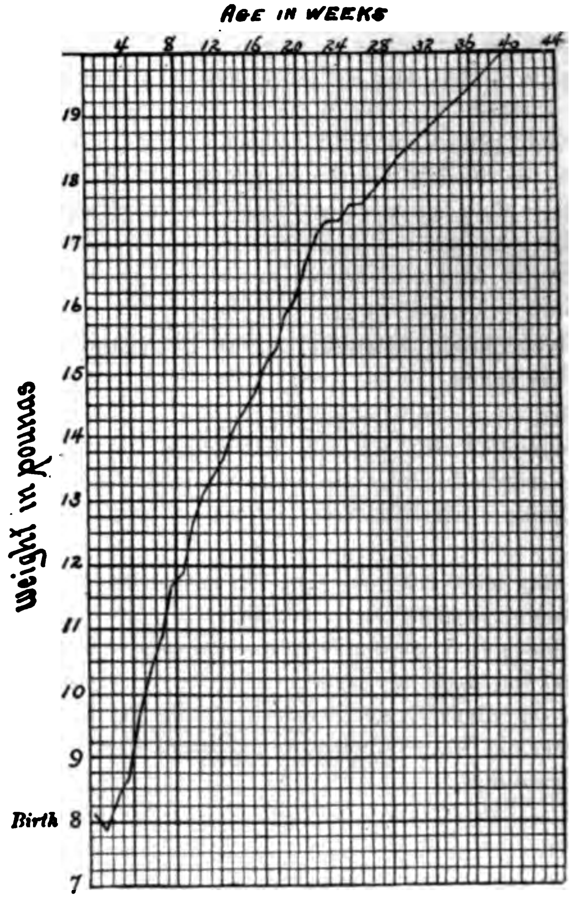


Fig. 38. (Original.)

Baby Robert M. F. Normal at birth. Was wet-nursed. **Gain, first mo** $2\frac{1}{4}$ pounds; second month, $1\frac{11}{16}$ pounds; third month, $1\frac{5}{8}$ pounds; **fourth mo** $1\frac{3}{8}$ pounds. Stools were normal. Had gastric disturbances **and symptoms** colic while the wet-nurse menstruated. When the child was **about seven mo** old the chemical analysis of the breast milk showed a deficiency **of fat and qui** high percentage of proteins. The milk supply gradually **gave out and it** necessary to wean the child.

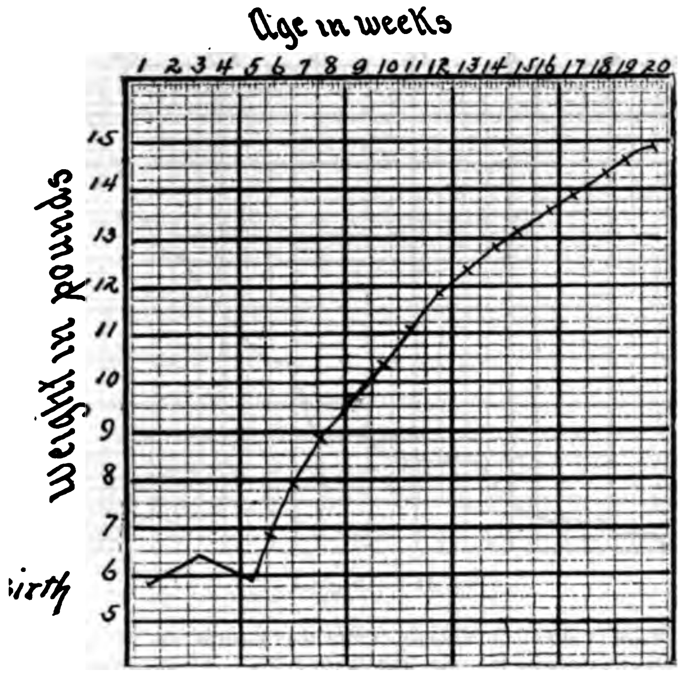


Fig. 39. (Original.)

aby J. S. Born prematurely. Weighed 5 pounds 14 ounces at birth. Was ed. Vomited; had dyspeptic symptoms, such as cheesy stools, restlessness t, crying continually, and excoriated anus. When one month old the weight, ıg shirt and diaper, was 6 pounds. A wet-nurse was procured. The child 1 pound during the first week, and an average of 10 ounces a week thereafter. tic symptoms disappeared; stools became normal. The child was not seen for ıths, and is a perfectly healthy baby today.

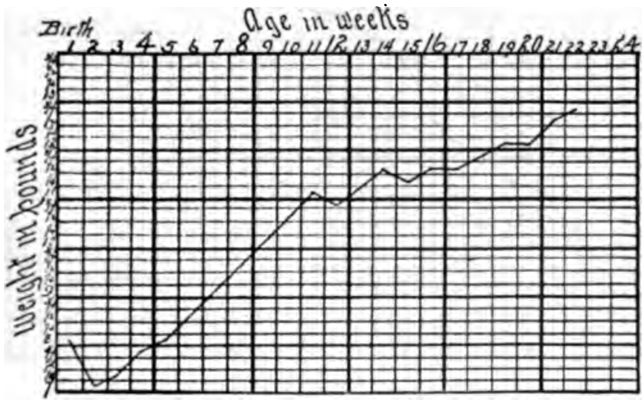


Fig. 40. (Original.)

om baby fed on Eskay's food since end of third week. General condition tory, although somewhat constipated.

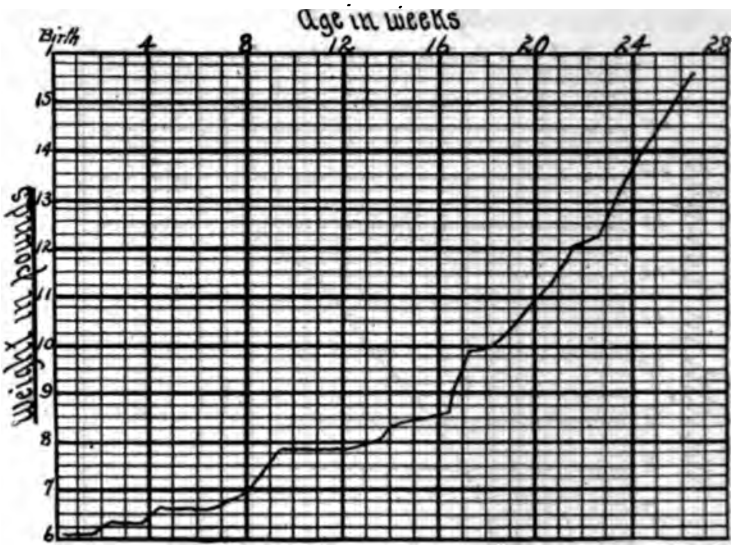


Fig. 41. (Original.)

Baby A. Case of chronic dyspepsia. Child four months old. Weighed 8 pounds 15 ounces. Gained 13 ounces the first week of treatment; 6 ounces the second week; 7, 12, 9 ounces respectively during each of the succeeding weeks.

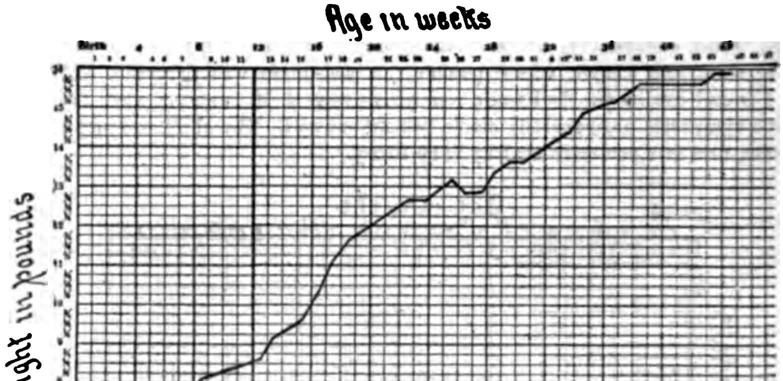


Fig. 42. (Original.)

Baby D. S. Weighed 5 pounds at birth. Was fed at Walker-Gordon Labortory since six weeks old. Lost weight during an attack of measles when twenty-

ks old. Did not gain one ounce from the thirty-eighth to the forty-second week, ough received a formula of:—

Fat	**4.00**
Sugar	**6.50**
Protein	**2.50**

Six feedings, of seven ounces each.

I ordered the following home modification:—

Raw milk	**6 ounces**
Barley water	**2 ounces**
Mellin's food	**2 teaspoonfuls**

Feed every three hours.

In addition thereto I ordered one ounce of steak juice or one ounce of ange juice, daily, one hour before feeding.

I also gave the white of one raw egg with the evening feeding. The od agreed very well and child gained in weight as I gradually added more ilk and reduced the quantity of barley water.

A growing child needs far more food than its weight alone would licate, for its income must exceed its expenditure so that it may grow. infant for the first seven months or first one-half year of life should e nothing but milk. Up to this age vegetable food is unsuited to it; is purely a carnivorous animal.

The diet of the infant is nearly twice as rich in proteins, half as rich in in fats, and a little more than half as rich in carbohydrates as that the adult. It is, therefore, in a physiologic sense a luxurious diet.

The strain of growth falls heavier upon the more precious proteins than on the more cheap and common carbohydrates.[1]

When children do not gain in weight, the quantity of sugar should increased. This should be done continuously and with due consideration the other ingredients.

The constructive ingredient in an infant's food is the proteins. We st, therefore, consider this element when an infant's weight is stationary.

Individual conditions must be considered, and chronic disorders elimated, *e.g.*, dyspeptic conditions or tuberculosis, before arriving at a diagsis of what really causes an infant's loss in weight.

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[1] "Stewart's Physiology," p. 412, 1897.

CHAPTER II.

COWS' MILK.

HAMMERSTEN[1] gives the following analysis of cows' milk in a thousand parts as follows:—

Water		874.2
Solids		125.8
Fat	36.5	
Sugar	48.1	
Salt	7.1	
Protein (casein, 28.8; albumin, 5.3)	34.1	

A. Baginsky[2] gives the following analysis of cows' milk. made at the Kaiser and Kaiserin Friedrich Hospital, Berlin:—

Water	87.60
Solids	12.38

In one hundred parts.

The solids consist of:—

Casein and albumin	3.65
Butter	3.11
Milk-sugar	4.54
Inorganic salts	1.08

Besides large amounts of potassium and potassium salts and small quantities of iron.

Composition, Variation, and Production.—Milk of all animals, roughly speaking, is composed of the same ingredients, but an analysis of milk is apt to be very misleading, as it does not show the physical condition of the milk, which is the important thing to know, from the physician's standpoint.

The general ingredients of milk are fat, sugar, albumin, casein, salts, and water. These ingredients vary in quantity from day to day, and from milking to milking. An average analysis of a woman's milk does not show what an infant is getting, by any means, for the composition of the milk depends upon the food, the health of the mother, and the frequency of nursing.

The Breed of a Cow.—Some breeds yield quantity; others quality. Holsteins produce the most milk; Alderneys and Jerseys yield the most fat; Shorthorns give the most casein and sugar. The average capacity of a cow's udder is about 5 pints, and the annual yield of milk is about 600 gallons.

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[1] "Physiological Chemistry."

[2] "Diseases of Children," 1899, page 32.

ime and Stage of Milking.—Cows are usually milked twice a day,
orning milk usually being larger in quantity and poorer in quality.
nilk which is first drawn is known as the fore-milk, and contains very
less fat than that last drawn, known as the strippings. This is due
partial creaming taking place in the udders. Dishonest dealers have
taken advantage of this fact in adulteration cases to have the cows
lly milked in the presence of ignorant witnesses, the resulting milk
sting largely of the fore-milk.

ge of Cows.—Young cows give less milk, while cows from four to
years old give the richest milk, and less milk is given with the first
They give the largest yield, according to Fleishmann, after the fifth
the seventh calf; after the fourteenth calf they yield, as a rule, no
milk. The poorest milk is yielded during the spring and early sum-
the richest during the autumn and early winter. If cows are worried
iven about, the quality and quantity of the milk are reduced. If they
ept warm and well fed, both quantity and quality are naturally in-
d.

ccording to Rotch, the *Durham,* or *Shorthorn,* represents the best type
w for this purpose. She has great constitutional vigor, great capacity
od, a perfect digestion, and, most important of all, a quiet tempera-
The analysis of her milk is as follows:—

	Per cent.
Fat	4.04
Sugar	4.34
Proteins	4.17
Mineral matter	0.73
Total solids	13.28
Water	86.72
	100.00

The *Devon* is another breed of cow having the same characteristics as
urham. They are gentle and vigorous, and yield a large quantity of
nilk, the analysis of which is as follows:—

	Per cent.
Fat	4.09
Sugar	4.32
Proteins	4.04
Mineral matter	0.76
Total solids	13.21
Water	86.79
	100.00

The *Ayrshire*, another type, while representing strength, is somewhat nervous, and while not as hardy as the Durham, they are free from disease and yield a large quantity of milk, the analysis of which is as follows:—

	Per cent.
Fat	3.89
Sugar	4.41
Proteins	4.01
Mineral matter	0.73
Total solids	13.04
Water	86.96
	100.00

The *Holstein-Friesian*, commonly called *Holstein*, represents the most perfect type of cow. She yields a large quantity of milk, though light in its total solids. The following is the analysis:—

	Per cent.
Fat	2.88
Sugar	4.33
Proteins	3.99
Mineral matter	0.74
Total solids	11.94
Water	88.06
	100.00

Some of the marks which distinguish the breeds of cows best adapted for infant feeding are:—

1. Constitutional vigor.
2. Adaptability to acclimatization.
3. Notable ability to raise their young.
4. Freedom from intense inbreeding.
5. A distinctly emulsified fat in the milk.
6. A preponderance in the fats of the fixed glycerides over the volatile glycerides.

The volatile glycerides do not exist in the mammæ, but are formed in the milk soon after milking. In some breeds, as in those of the Channel Islands, this change occurs more quickly than in others. Such breeds, as the Jersey, Guernsey, and any others in which intense inbreeding has been carried on, and in which acclimatization has not been perfected, should not be used for infants and young children. These breeds, of course, do not represent all of those available for substitute feeding, for we may mention many others equally good each in its country. For example, the Kerry, of Ireland; the Red Polled, of England; the Dutch Belted, and the Flemish; also, the Flamande and the Cotentine, of France; the Norman breed, Normandy; besides the Sirmenthal, sometimes called Bernese, of Switzer-nd; together with the Chianina, of Italy, and the Allgauer, of Germany. The native cow of this country, the "Red Cow," through many generations of neglect and exposure in winter, has undoubtedly acquired an impaired digestion, and does not respond readily to appropriate changes of food.

Care of the Cow.—Knowing the cow to be a sensitive animal, she should be carefully guarded from useless excitement. She should be carefully groomed by cleaning and washing, and the parts should be thoroughly dried. The barn should have plenty of fresh air, and the sunlight should be admitted. There should be plenty of room for exercise. In the stalls the cow should have perfect freedom for her head and limbs. The food a cow receives should be wholesome and varied. She should never be fed with the by-products of brewery or glucose factories. The food best adapted for the cow is hay, wheat, bran, ground oats, and cornmeal. In winter sugar beets and carrots may be added. Much care is needed to graduate the change from green foods to dry, as disturbance of the equilibrium of the mammary gland is followed by injurious effects to the consumer. We should strive to give a cow green clover, green corn, green oats, and meadow grass. Poisonous weeds must be guarded against. Not infrequently we read of gastroenteric conditions in children, which are traceable to poisonous weeds. *Pure water in large quantities must always be at hand.* A cow is best adapted for the production of milk between her third and ninth years. The milk of a cow is not adapted for infant feeding until it is free from colostrum corpuscles. It should not be used in the advanced stage of pregnancy.

Tuberculin Test.—Every dairy now resorts to prophylactic measures; hence, none should be employed that has not been subjected to the tuberculin test. Besides this, each cow should be examined by a skilled veterinarian regarding her physical condition.

Care of the Milk.—The vital point consists in excluding germs and barn filth. The Milk Commission of New York has tentatively fixed upon maximum of 30,000 germs of all kinds per cubic centimeter of milk. A ubic centimeter is about one-half a teaspoonful, and a quart of milk con-ains about 900 cubic centimeters, so the total number of germs in a quart ust be less than 27,000,000.

This standard must not be exceeded in order to obtain the endorsement f the Commission, and must be attained solely by measures directed toward rupulous cleanliness, proper cooling, and prompt delivery.

Furthermore, the milk certified by the Commission must contain not ss than 4 per cent. of butter fat, on the average, and have all other haracteristics of pure, wholesome milk.

In order that dealers who incur the expense and take the precautions ecessary to furnish a truly clean and wholesome milk may have some suit-ble means of bringing these facts before the public, the Commission offers them the right to use caps on their milk jars stamped with the words: "*Certified by the Commission of the Medical Society of the County of New York.*"

Rowland G. Freeman, answering an inquiry of mine concerning the possibility of procuring milk free from germs in the dairy, says: "By means of special methods it has been found possible in some cases to obtain milk with only 10 bacteria per cubic centimeter. These methods are, however, not practicable for a large commercial supply. When the conditions at the dairy are known to be good a bacterial content averaging less than 5000 per cubic centimeter has seemed to me satisfactory, while a bacterial content averaging less than 10,000 is fairly good."

Thus it appears, that with excellent care, as described in the handling of milk, with modern hygiene, practically sterile milk can be procured for infant feeding.

CERTIFIED MILK IN NEW YORK.

The dairy rules of the United States Department of Agriculture describe in detail the caring and feeding of cattle. It was decided that the acidity of milk should not be higher than 0.2 per cent., and that the number of bacteria should not be more than 30,000 per cubic centimeter.

The Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research inaugurated a periodical inspection of the dairies and milk of the dealers who were willing to coöperate to secure a clean, fresh milk.

It was observed that the milk from a cow milked in a dirty barn showed 120,000 bacteria to the cubic centimeter, while another cow of the same herd milked in a pasture gave milk with only 26,000. A cow standing near a pile of dry feed had 1,000,000 bacteria per cubic centimeter, while the milk of other cows had a low bacterial count. Dirty cows gave a much higher count of bacteria than clean ones. Clean cows in a herd gave a count of 2000 as against 90,000 in the milk of the dirty cows. The milker was frequently found to be dirty, and the milk from some milkers always gave a high bacterial count. With the utensils it was sometimes difficult to find which factor was at fault. The ordinary strainer was, however, a prolific source of bacteria.

With a sterile pail and a sterilized cotton or cheese-cloth strainer the bacteria would fall in numbers. Aeration by requiring more complicated apparatus increased the danger of contamination. This was particularly so if aeration was carried out in a dirty barn or without regard to strict cleanliness.

The process of rapid cooling is one of the most important factors in the production of uncontaminated milk. The cooling of milk in springs is seldom sufficient, as the temperature of water in summer was found to vary from 45° F. to 70° F., whereas the milk should be brought below 45° F.

insure few bacteria. Ice is absolutely necessary to the farmer who ndles milk. W. H. Park (*Yale Medical Journal*) says, as to the number bacteria in the city milk: "From an examination of nearly 1000 speciens there is no question about the enormous number of bacteria present in e city milk. Now as to the harmfulness of this milk: The group of chilren under 1 year, on heated milk, received from decent farms, running efore heating from 1,000,000 to 5,000,000 bacteria per cubic centimeter, id not, so far as we could see, suffer any serious harm from the bacterial roducts in the milk. During the summer these children had, off and on, testinal disorders, but not much more than those in the same section of e city receiving milk from the very best possible dairies around New York. he children on pasteurized milk showed some very interesting results.

"There were very few bacteria in this milk when first received—anyhere from 10,000 to 20,000; but on the second day they had so increased to be from 10,000,000 to 30,000,000. In some cases where the cond day milk was given there was immediate vomiting, followed by iarrhœa.

"In the asylums, where the children were from 3 to 13 years of age, e found no trouble from the milk during the summer months, although some cases it ran as high as 100,000,000 bacteria per cubic centimeter.

"The reasons for the enormous development of bacteria in the milk were sufficient cleanliness in getting the milk and very faulty cooling arrangeents. The farmers mostly put their milk in springs; as the summer vances the water gets higher in temperature until it reaches about 60° F. ome farmers hardly cool their milk at all.

"The author has seen milk shipped in cans standing in a car where e temperature was 90° F., and left there without any ice for seven hours. he City Health Board has passed a rule that all milk shall be at a mperature of 50° F., or under, when it reaches New York City."

THE ADULTERATION OF MILK.

Formaldehyde in Milk.—The adulteration of milk by the use of foraldehyde is becoming more common than is generally suspected. For a me its use was a "trade secret," but it has been so thoroughly advertised at every obscure individual who has a milk route is now familiar with the reservative qualities of formaldehyde. In our large cities the health officers re on the watch, and hence in these its use is being curtailed, but in the maller towns and villages the people have not this protection. It would e well, therefore, for physicians to guard against this and keep it in mind hen mysterious illness develops in milk-users. They should also be preared to make an analysis of milk at any time as to its freedom from the rug. This is a simple procedure, and yet one that requires considerable technical skill in the use of some of the tests. The *Lancet-Clinic* gives the various methods for testing formaldehyde as laid down by Herman Harms, some of which are quite simple:—

Rimini Test.—(*A*): Phenyl-hydrazine muriate, 0.5 gram; distilled water, 100 cubic centimeters; dissolve. (*B*): Sodium nitroprusside, 0.5 gram; distilled water, 30 cubic centimeters; dissolve. (*C*) Soda, U. S. P., 15 grams; distilled water, 60 cubic centimeters; dissolve. To 15 cubic centimeters of the suspected milk in a test-tube add 10 drops of *A*, mix and add 3 drops of *B*; mix and let 5 drops of *C* run in slowly on the side of the test-tube. In the presence of formaldehyde a blue color is instantly produced, changing, on standing, to red. On adding to the mixture of milk and solution *A*, 2 drops of ferric chloride solution, and then about 2 cubic centimeters of concentrated hydrochloric acid, a red color is produced, which later changes to orange-yellow. In sour milk the above-mentioned blue is supplanted by green. The Rimini test is easily applied, and readily detects formaldehyde when present to the extent even of 1 part in 25,000 or 30,000.

Phloroglucin Test.—Dissolve 1 gram of phloroglucin in 100 cubic centimeters of distilled water. Put 10 cubic centimeters of the suspected milk in a test-tube and add 5 cubic centimeters of the phloroglucin solution; shake and add 1 cubic centimeter of solution of potassa (U. S. P.). If formaldehyde is present, a red color is developed at once, fading usually within five or ten minutes; hence the color must be observed at once. One part in 20,000 gives a decided reaction.

Hehner's Test.—To 15 cubic centimeters of concentrated sulphuric acid in a test-tube add 1 or 2 drops of ferric chloride test solution (U. S. P.) and mix. Then pour upon this, in such manner as not to mix the layers, the suspected milk. A violet color indicates the presence of formaldehyde. In the case of cream dilute the cream with an equal volume of water, and then apply the test as above described. The violet color is sometimes produced at once, but oftener not for five or ten minutes, and sometimes not for an hour or so, depending on the amount of formaldehyde present. By this test 1 part in 10,000 or 15,000 is readily detected.

Liebermann Phenol Test.—In the presence of small traces of formaldehyde, distill off from the milk a few cubic centimeters, and add to this 1 drop of very dilute aqueous phenol solution. Then pour this mixture slowly upon concentrated sulphuric acid in a test-tube solution so as to form a layer. A bright crimson color appears at the zone of contact. This is easily seen in as little as 1 part in 200,000, and in greater proportion in 1 to 100,000. There is a milky zone above the red color, and, if more concentrated, there will be a whitish or pinkish precipitate. Sometimes the zone will appear in about one hour, one-tenth of an inch below the line of contact.

Preservative Used.	Grains of Preservatives Used per Gallon of Milk.	After Standing 2 Days.	After Standing 4 Days.	After Standing 6 Days.	After Standing 7 Days.	After 8 Days. Lactic Acid, Per Cent.	After 11 Days. Lactic Acid, Per Cent.
(Pure Milk)	....	Distinctly turned	Slightly sour	Sour	Sour and curdled	0.68	0.71
Formic aldehyde (40 per cent.)	8.75 0.0125 per cent.	Sweet	Sweet	Sweet	Sweet	Sweet 0.12	Sour and curdled 0.43
aldehyde er cent.)	17.5 0.025 per cent.	Sweet	Sweet	Sweet	Sweet	Sweet 0.10	Sweet 0.14
ehyde ent.)	35 0.05 per cent.	Sweet	Sweet	Sweet	Sweet	Sweet 0.07	Sweet 0.10
cid	35 0.05 per cent.	Sweet	Sweet	Turned	Sour and curdled	0.42	0.52
d borax to boric	35 17.5 of each	Sweet	Sweet	Sweet	Sweet	Sweet 0.10	Sour 0.32
lic acid	17.5 0.025 per cent.	Sweet	Sweet	Sweet	Turned	Sour 0.26	0.42
icylic acid	35 0.05 per cent.	Sweet	Sweet	Sweet	Sweet	Sweet 0.10	Sour 0.33
Benzoic acid	17.5 0.025 per cent.	Sweet	Sweet	Slightly turned	Sour	Sour 0.45	0.52

Hydrochloric Test.—Fifteen or 20 cubic centimeters of suspected milk, together with 2 or 3 cubic centimeters of strong hydrochloric acid, are boiled for a few minutes in a test-tube. A red coloration indicates formaldehyde. Other tests are known, but they are more complicated and require apparatus or reagents not kept by the average pharmacist. The above tests are all simple in their application and afford a ready means of detecting formaldehyde in milk and cream.

The Rimini test is highly recommendable. The reaction in sweet milk appears rapidly and with certainty. Hehner's test, as well as the phloroglucin and phenol tests, are very reliable and are all extremely sensitive. The hydrochloric acid test is very simple, but is not to be depended on; it may show formaldehyde in most instances; however, cases have come under our observation when it has utterly failed to show the reaction, probably because of the milk having undergone some unknown changes. The Liebermann test is simple, delicate, and shows formaldehyde very readily.

As corroborative evidence, it is well, after the tests are finished, to let the suspected milk or cream stand in a warm place for twenty-four hours. A pure sample will invariably turn sour and separate. A sample which has been "doctored" with formaldehyde, however, will show, at the end of twenty-four hours, but a very slight separation, if indeed any at all, and will have but a slight odor.

It is desirable that all test solutions be freshly prepared, especially the nitroprusside of sodium solution in the Rimini test, and that the suspected sample be as fresh as possible. Sour samples are difficult to test, and may yield variable results, because in these formaldehyde has been oxidized, and is no longer present as formaldehyde. In carrying out the tests for formaldehyde it is advisable to work the suspected sample and the one known to be pure side by side. Finally, do not expose your tests or have your milk placed where a bottle of formaldehyde is being opened, for the vapor is very penetrating, and you thus may be easily led to misleading results. When formaldehyde has been found to be present by at least three of the aforementioned tests, it may be considered that its presence has been shown.

TUBERCULOUS INFECTION THROUGH MILK.

The question of tuberculous infection by ingestion of milk is answered in the negative by N. Aspe (*Rev. d. Med. y Cir. Prac.*, Nov. 21, 1901). If the tubercle bacillus reaches the cow's udder, it must necessarily be carried thither by the blood. The bacillus has yet to be found in the blood; but, supposing its presence there, we are taught to believe that every gland in the body, by its selective power, takes from the blood only those elements which are necessary to the elaboration of its peculiar products. This would seem to dispose of the possibility of infection of the milk before it leaves the cow's body, unless the elective faculty, attributed to other glands, be denied to the mammary. Granting this possibility, if we recall that in the production of experimental infections by subcutaneous inoculation the first organs to be affected are the lymphatics, it is natural to suppose that the first and invariable effect of the ingestion of tuberculous milk would be the development of tabes mesenterica, yet primary tabes is comparatively rare. The author of this paper further raises the question of identity between the human and bovine tubercle bacillus, and quotes experiments in inoculation of cows with cultures from human tuberculous products with negative results in the nineteen animals experimented upon, whereas animals injected with the bovine form quickly succumbed, and autopsy showed tuberculous lesions.

The Influence of High Temperature on Tubercle Bacilli in Milk.—Barthel and Stenstrom (*Centralblt. f. Bakt.*, October 8, 1901), in reviewing recorded experiments on the sterilization of tuberculous milk, remark on the very variable results obtained by different observers. Bang has stated that heating tuberculous milk to 80° C. is not sufficient to kill the bacilli, but that a temperature of 85° C. is sufficient for the purpose. Forster has found 70° C. for five to ten minutes capable of killing the organisms; de Man, 70° C. for ten minutes, and 80° C. for five minutes. Galtier has shown that milk submitted to 70°, 75°, 80°, and 85° C. for six minutes is still capable of conveying infection, and others have had similar results. *Barthel and Stenstrom have conducted experiments which go to show that the chemical reaction of the milk has much to do with the facility with which it is sterilized.* The material was obtained from a cow with an udder in an advanced state of tuberculosis. Guinea-pigs were used to test the results, and the effect of 65°, 70°, 75°, and 80° C. was studied. The results were positive in all cases; that is to say, a temperature of 80° C. for ten minutes, a temperature of 75° C. for fifteen minutes, 70° C. for fifteen minutes, and 65° C. for twenty minutes were all incapable of sterilizing the milk. These results the authors interpret as follows: Storch has shown that the chemical changes in milk are the more marked the more advanced the disease of the udder, and that the reaction becomes more and more markedly alkaline. On the other hand, it has long been known that it is more difficult to sterilize an alkaline than a neutral, and a neutral than an acid fluid. The specimen with which they worked was strongly alkaline, and to this they ascribe the difficulties in its sterilization. Variations in chemical reaction explain, in their opinion, the variations in the results obtained by other investigators.

The Tuberculin Test of Pure-bred Cattle.—Mr. D. E. Salmon, D. V. M., Chief of the Bureau of Animal Industry of the United States Department of Agriculture, has recently issued a pamphlet in which he demonstrates the necessity of guarding against the importation of disease by means of cattle, and upholds the present regulations to prevent such occurrences as proper and consistent. The chief danger to cattle arises from the prevalence of tuberculosis, which disease affects herds more widely and more disastrously than any other.

Even if the point urged by Professor Koch at the British Congress on Tuberculosis be granted, and it is allowed that the spread of tuberculosis by milk and meat is to be feared but to a slight extent, the fact must still be borne in mind that tuberculosis, in itself, is a decimating factor among cattle of immense importance.

Mr. Salmon shows that the United States has a very large export trade in cattle, and one that is continually increasing. He further points out that rigid restrictions are in force in many countries in the world to prevent tuberculous beasts from gaining an entrance into those territories; consequently, if we wish our cattle to enter those markets, they must not only be free from tuberculosis when they leave the farm, but also when they arrive in a foreign country. To effect this object, every effort must be put forth to keep out tuberculous cattle from this country, for a few thus diseased will quickly spread contagion.

The argument is therefore advanced that the tuberculin test as now adopted must be strictly enforced to guard against such a result. The contention is likewise made that the pure-bred cattle mainly imported from Great Britain are the chief menace in this respect, and that, if the tuberculin test were not strictly adhered to, the blue-blooded immigrants from the United Kingdom would disseminate the germs of tuberculosis among cattle from one end of the country to the other.

Tubercle Bacilli Disseminated by Cows in Coughing, as a Possible Source of Contagion.—The general belief at the present time that the means by which tuberculosis is chiefly disseminated, by the inhalation of dried tuberculosis sputum which becomes pulverized and is carried about by currents of air, or put into motion in other ways, has been strongly substantiated by numerous experiments. Flügge, however, is not in accord with these views, and is of the opinion that the spread of tuberculosis is due mainly to the inhalation of minute particles of sputum which the act of coughing thus ejects. He further holds that these particles float in the air for a considerable period of time, and may be blown hither and thither by very slight currents. Klebs, in this country, has demonstrated the fact that, during the act of coughing, minute particles of sputum, often containing tubercle bacilli, are thrown out. At his instance, too, Curry, of Boston (*Boston Medical and Surgical Journal*, October, 1898, vol. cxxxix, No. 15), carried out a series of elaborate experiments with the object of thoroughly investigating the matter.

Dr. Curry concluded from his experiments that, although there is a possible, and even a probable, danger from this source, Flügge has greatly exaggerated this danger. Dr. Mazyck, lecturer and demonstrator of bacteriology, Veterinary Department, University of Pennsylvania, has been led to undertake experiments to see if it were not possible that cows in the act of coughing would likewise expel small particles of tuberculous material rich in tubercle bacilli. The results of these studies were made the subject of a paper by Dr. Mazyck, which was read before the Pathological Society of Philadelphia on November 8, 1900. The belief is common that cows when coughing swallow all their sputum, and do not project it to any extent. Dr. Mazyck, by ingenious methods devised by himself, has disproved this theory, and has practically demonstrated that, in the act of coughing, cows, as well as men, atomize, so to speak, their sputum, and project it into the air in minute particles, which may float for some time. Inoculation of guinea-pigs with this secretion gave a considerable proportion of positive results. Dr. Mazyck came to the conclusion that the danger of infection by means of this atomized sputum, as far as mankind goes, is confined practically to those in constant contact with the animals, but for other animals in the same stable the infected animals must be considered a source of danger. The moral to be derived from the outcome of Dr. Mazyck's experiments would seem to be that when tuberculosis is diagnosed in a cow she should be isolated as far as is possible; at any rate, she should not be confined in a shed with healthy animals.

Sterilization and Pasteurization vs. Tubercle-free Herds, etc.[1]—The comparative dependence upon sterilization or pasteurization and the insurance of absolute absence of tubercle in herds supplying milk are discussed by Hope, who thinks that, while raw milk is especially liable to contamination, sterilization, valuable as it is, is, after all, only an expedient, and must not be put in such prominence that the importance of the other safeguards of absolute cleanliness of source and handling are neglected. Beyond any question, he says, the ultimate advantage lies in obtaining the milk from herds free from tuberculosis. A comparison is made with having water from a contaminated source and making it pure later by chemical processes or boiling it, and obtaining it in the first place from an uncontaminated source. He thinks it is quite possible to insure that the milk supply shall come from cows free from tuberculosis.

The State Veterinarian of Pennsylvania, Dr. Pearson, thinks that not over 2 per cent. of the cattle of that State are tuberculous, and probably if a general test of all the cattle of the other States mentioned were made we should find a very much smaller proportion tuberculous than is indicated by this tabular statement. The explanation of the high percentages that have been given is found in the fact that it has been, for the most part, suspected herds which have been tested. Admitting that the greater part of these percentages are too high, we still have revealed a condition which is worthy of our serious consideration.

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[1] E. W. Hope (*The Lancet*).

The classes of animals most affected are breeding animals and dairy stock. The beef cattle coming to our markets are still singularly free from tuberculosis. Of 4,841,166 cattle slaughtered in the year 1900 under Federal inspection, but 5279, or 0.11 per cent., were sufficiently affected to cause the condemnation of any part of the carcass. Of 23,336,884 hogs similarly inspected, 5440 were sufficiently affected to cause condemnation of some part of the carcass. This is equal to 0.023 per cent., or slightly more than one-fifth the proportion found in beef cattle. It is scarcely necessary to add that there are certain lots of cattle and hogs encountered which are affected in much greater proportion than the general average just given.

From a recent view by Drs. Russell and Hastings, of the Wisconsin Agricultural Experiment Station,[1] of the *tests of cattle for tuberculosis* made in the United States, the following summary is presented:—

TABLE No. 19.

	Number Tested.	Number Tuberculosis.	Per cent. Tuberculosis.
Vermont	60,000	2,390	3.9
Massachusetts	24,685	12,443	50.0
Massachusetts, entire herds	4,093	1,080	26.4
Connecticut	6,300	....	14.2
New York, 1894	947	66	6.9
New York, 1897-98	1,200	163	18.4
Pennsylvania	34,000	4,800	14.1
New Jersey	22,500	....	21.4
Illinois, 1897-98	929	....	12.0
Illinois, 1899	3,655	560	15.32
Michigan	....	....	13.0
Minnesota	3,430	....	11.1
Iowa	873	122	13.8
Wisconsin—			
Experiment Station tests:			
Suspected herds	323	115	35.6
Non-suspected herds	935	84	9.0
State Veterinarian's tests:			
Suspected herds	588	101	32.5
Tests of local veterinarians under State Veterinarian on cattle intended for shipment to States requiring tuberculin certificate	3,421	76	2.2

The following suggestions, adapted from the fifty dairy rules of the United States Department of Agriculture, are recommended for strict adoption in our dairies:—

The Stable.—Keep dairy cattle in a room or building by themselves. It is preferable, when possible, to have no cellar below and no storage loft above. The stables should be well ventilated, lighted, and drained; should have tight floors and walls and plainly constructed. Store the manure under cover outside the cow stable, and remove it to a distance as often as pracicable. Whitewash the stables once or twice a year; use land plaster in the manure gutters daily. Clean and thoroughly air the stable before milking; in hot weather sprinkle the floor.

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[1] Bulletin No. 84, Wisconsin Agricultural Experiment Station, March, 1901.

The Cows.—Have the herd examined at least twice a year by a skilled veterinarian. Promptly remove from the herd any animal suspected of being in bad health and reject her milk. Never add an animal to the herd until certain it is free from disease, especially tuberculosis. Do not allow the cows to be excited by hard driving, abuse, loud talking, or any unnecessary disturbance. Feed liberally, and use only fresh, palatable food stuffs. Provide water in abundance, easy of access, and always pure. Do not allow any strongly flavored food, like garlic, cabbage, turnips, to be eaten except immediately after milking. Clean the entire body of the cow daily. If the hair in the region of the udder is not easily kept clean, it should be clipped. If the sides of the cow are plastered with dirt or manure, as is often the case, a certain amount is sure to fall into the pail of milk. This is where the trouble really begins, for this dirt and manure abound in bacteria which cause decomposition in milk, and thereby induce bowel disturbances.

The Milk.—The milker should be clean in all respects. He should wash and dry his hands and clean his nails just before milking. After the hands have been washed, a little vaseline may be used on them, thereby preventing scales from the teat or fingers getting into the milk. The milker should wear clean, dry garments, used only when milking, and kept in a clean place at other times. Brush the udder and surrounding parts just before milking, and wipe them with a clean, damp cloth or sponge. Commence milking at the same hour every morning and evening, and milk quietly and thoroughly. Throw away (but not on the floor—better in the gutter) the first few streams from each teat. This first milk is watery and of little value, and during the intervals between milking, the bacteria from the air get into the cow's teats and grow with great rapidity. These bacteria cause early souring of the milk. If in any milking a part of the milk is bloody or stringy or unnatural in appearance, the whole mass should be rejected. Milk with dry hands, or oiled as above; never allow the hands to come in contact with the milk. If any accident occurs by which the pail, full or partly full, of milk becomes dirty, do not try to remove this by straining, but reject all this milk and rinse the pail.

Care of the Milk.—Remove the milk of every cow from the dairy at once to a clean, dry room, where the air is pure and sweet. Do not allow cans to remain in stables while they are being filled. Strain the milk through a metal gauze and a flannel cloth, or layer of cotton, as soon as it is drawn. Aerate and cool the milk as soon as strained. The rapid aeration and cooling of milk are matters of great importance. Combined aerators and coolers, suitable for use with well water or ice water, can be had at any dairy supply house at a small cost. By using one of these, the cow odor, the animal heat, and much of the dirt can be removed from milk in a few minutes. The milk should be cooled to 45° F., if for shipment, or to 60° F., if for home use or delivery to a factory. Never mix fresh, warm milk with that which has been cooled. Do not allow the milk to freeze. When cans are hauled a distance they should be full and carried in a spring wagon. In hot weather cover the cans, when moved in a wagon, with a clean, wet blanket or canvas. If milk is stored, it should be held in tanks of fresh, cold water, renewed daily, in a clean, cold, dry room. Clean all dairy utensils by first thoroughly rinsing them in warm water; then clean inside and out with a brush and hot water into which a cleansing material is dissolved; then rinse, and lastly sterilize by boiling water or steam. Use pure water only. After cleaning, keep the utensils inverted in pure air and sun if possible, until wanted for use. Old cans, in which parts of the tin are worn off, or where there are seams and cracks, are impossible to keep clean, and should not be employed.

Small Animals.—Cats and dogs must not be in the stables during the time of milking. The reason for this is that cats are peculiarly liable to transmit diphtheria; both cats and dogs have disgusting skin diseases which may be transmitted to children, and both animals also are apt to nose around and dirty the utensils.

If precautions like the above are strictly carried out, the milk will be clean and remain fresh for a considerable length of time. The fresher the milk is, the better it will be for family use. *The test for uncleanliness consists in an increase in the proportion of lactic acid generated in the milk, and in a large increase in the number of bacteria per cubic centimeter.*

The New York Senate passed a bill recently, forbidding sale of milk containing formaldehyde or salicylic acid, owing to their injurious effects on infants.

RAW MILK.

Monrad (*Jahrbuch f. Kinderheilkunde*, No. 55, p. 61) describes a series of children fed with raw milk. These infants could not digest sterilized or boiled milk. Their condition improved when raw milk was substituted. It was interesting to note that during the course of Monrad's investigations an infant received sterilized milk by mistake, and its former dyspeptic symptoms reappeared.

Jensen found that new-born calves assimilated raw milk, but when boiled milk was given, they were subject to coli-enteritis. Such calves that recovered were atrophic. Milk, when subjected to prolonged sterilization, such as tyndalizing the milk, undergoes certain chemical changes. These are:—

1. Nuclein and lecithin are rendered insoluble.
2. Milk-sugar is completely changed.
3. The coagulability of the casein is impaired.
4. The fat globules are separated and rise to the surface of the milk.

5. By the influence of the chlorides on the casein peptones are formed in the milk.

6. The milk is rendered unpalatable by this superheating.

7. The albumin is rendered much less assimilable by prolonged heating.

The increased number of cases of rickets and Barlow's disease since the advent of sterilization does not speak well for this process.

Certain factors should be noted:—

1. That sterilization is intended to kill pathogenic bacteria in the milk.

2. That not only are pathogenic bacteria destroyed, but also saprophytes, which certainly have some bearing on the digestive functions of an infant.

We know that the proteolytic bacteria are in the milk for certain reasons:—

1. To coagulate the casein.

2. To peptonize this coagulated casein.

It is possible that by sterilizing milk and destroying these bacteria, we rob the milk of microbes necessary to perform certain aids in the digestive process.

Such assistance in the digestion of milk may not be necessary in the robust and normal infant, but it is quite different when we are dealing with dyspeptic or atrophic infants.

When infants *thrive on sterilized milk*, then it is a good plan to *continue the same;* but if *dyspeptic symptoms—vomiting* and *undigested, cheesy stools* with colicky symptoms—show themselves, then such food should be discontinued. Such cases demand a *radical* change of diet, and it is here that an easily assimilated form of food is indicated. *Such food is raw milk.*

Scorbutic cases in which we *continue* giving sterilized milk will not be modified whether we add HCl, pepsin, or alkalies. The character of the food is at fault and a radical change must be made. For the *treatment of atrophy nothing will supersede raw milk.* Certain precautions must be taken in securing raw milk for infant feeding.

The ideal cows' milk is clean, raw milk. By this is meant *milk free from all possible contamination.* Such milk should be obtained from a stable having all modern hygienic surroundings. If greater attention were bestowed on the condition of the cow, the cow's udder, the stable, the bucket, the hands of the milker, then less sterilization and pasteurization would be necessary. Let it be distinctly understood that certain chemical changes are brought about in milk when it is steamed, be it in the process of sterilization or pasteurization. *Neither sterilization nor pasteurization adds to the digestibility of milk.* Indeed, chemical experience has demonstrated the fact that raw milk, sold in some places as certified milk, in the Walker-Gordon milk laboratories as guaranteed milk, is more easily assimilated. It is proven by the condition of the stools as well as the gastric digestion.

Nature has given us a good example of how milk should be fed to an infant. *Breast-milk is certainly raw milk,* and is served to the infant at the temperature of the body. Not only does boiling and steaming of milk produce chemical changes in the albuminoids, but it renders the process of digestion much more difficult, and thus it is that most infants taking boiled milk suffer with constipation. This is not so, however, in the case of infants fed on raw milk.

When sterilized and pasteurized milks are found to disagree with children, raw milk may sometimes be easily assimilated. Thus it will be found that, while boiled milk, or sterilized or pasteurized milk, given either whole or with its proper dilution to suit the various ages, will provoke constipation, by substituting raw milk for heated milk the same will be more easily assimilated. The author has frequently noted decided antiscorbutic properties in fresh raw milk. In children with pronounced rickets, and even scurvy, the withdrawal of sterilized or other milk and the substituting of fresh raw milk will work surprising changes.

Biedert[1] states that he has followed Escherich and Epstein, who recommend giving full milk to children at birth. In France, Budin and H. de Rothschild, and more recently E. Schlesinger, in Germany, have given undiluted milk to both sick and well children as a substitute for breast-milk. Biedert claims to have seen good results in some instances, but cannot recommend whole milk, as a rule, for feeding children. Marfan, another advocate of pure-milk feeding, believes that milk should be diluted until the fourth or fifth month, but later he advises pure-milk feeding. Schlesinger, of Breslau, while giving pure milk, gives a longer interval between the meals. That the greatest possible success is not achieved by this method in France can be judged by the statement of Marfan while discussing the subject of athrepsia. He says: "*N'a jamais vu l'athrepsie confirmée se terminer favorablement.*" Thus it seems that even we have much better results than the French, for there are certainly a great many children who can and will digest a diluted milk, and thin milk-and-cream mixtures, as shown by their stool, their sleep, and their increase in weight. These same children with enfeebled digestive functions will invariably show gastric disturbances—such as vomiting, colic, constipation, or diarrhœa, restlessness, sleeplessness—and will cry continually when given whole milk. So that *whole-milk feeding* is not assimilated during the early months of a child's life; besides they do not increase in weight. This method of feeding has been tried over and over again, and we are compelled to discontinue the heavier food, consisting of whole milk, and substitute a light food, consisting of diluted milk.

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[1] Fourth Edition of Kinderernährung, 1900, page 184.

Fresh Raw Milk.—Just as the medical profession, and to some extent the laity, have become impressed with the idea that milk should be boiled before being used, to insure the destruction of the microbes which it contains, Dr. Freudenrich comes forward with a series of experiments, by which he claims to prove that raw milk possesses remarkable germicidal properties. According to his experiments, the bacillus of cholera, when put into fresh cows' milk, dies in one hour, the bacillus of typhoid fever succumbs at the end of twenty-four hours, while other germs die at the end of varying periods.

Milk which has been exposed to a temperature of 131° F. loses its germicidal properties. Milk which is four or five days old is also devoid of microbe-killing power.[1]

Undiluted Milk as a Food for Infants.—Notwithstanding tireless research and wonderful ingenuity, a perfect substitute to replace mother's milk as an article of food for the nourishment of infants yet remains to be discovered. This is greatly to be regretted, as the occasions are not rare on which mother's milk is not available, or it is desirable or even necessary to have recourse to such a substitute. The fact is that there is yet not a little to learn concerning the assimilative processes in children, and knowledge, particularly of a practical character, concerning food is not so extensive or so precise as it might be. As K. Oppenheimer points out in a recent communication, an article of food for the infant to serve as a perfect substitute for mother's milk should be as useful as the latter in the nourishment both of healthy children and of those suffering from gastro-intestinal catarrh. These requirements, however, are not met by any of the large number of artificial foods that have been devised. For the purpose of establishing the usefulness of undiluted cows' milk as judged by this standard, Oppenheimer made comparative observations in normal healthy children, in infants suffering from gastro-intestinal derangement, and in atrophic children. In almost all of the 11 cases of the first group the body weight exhibited a steady and uniform increase, while of 36 cases of the second group only 6 failed to do well, and of 12 cases exhibiting marked atrophy 8 failed to do well. All of the foregoing cases were under observation for periods of more than four weeks. Of 33 additional cases under observation for a shorter period than four weeks, 20 thrived and 13 did not.

The Dangers.—We naturally regard the dangers of having tubercle bacilli in the milk as one of the prime reasons for sterilizing the same. We should never employ the milk from *one cow*, but always from a *mixed herd*.

The danger of transmitting tuberculosis is certainly very rare. Authentic cases have been reported from time to time in medical literature in which a supposed infection could be attributed to milk. R. Koch disputes the possibility of transmitting bovine tuberculosis to man.

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[1] Bacteriological World. December, 1891; Journal of the American Medical Association, February 27, 1892.

In a herd of cows which has undergone the *proper veterinary inspection, the danger of overseeing tuberculosis of the udder is reduced to a minimum.*

FAT.

While it is true that a new-born infant with a healthy stomach can tolerate a higher fat percentage than an infant with a weak stomach, great care must be exercised to avoid overtaxing the digestive functions, so that a stomach breakdown does not result.

Fat Metabolism.—The proper amount of fat that an infant can digest at birth is between 1 and 2 per cent. After several weeks 2 per cent. will be digested. Nutritional disturbances such as regurgitation and vomiting of sour-smelling liquids will follow the feeding of more fat than the stomach can tolerate. Some infants will thrive on 2½ per cent. of fat, while others demand 3 to 3½ per cent. of fat when six months old. The stool of excessive *fat-fed infants* will contain round *or lentil-shaped particles of fat.* Clinical experience has demonstrated that vomiting, colic, and restlessness results more often from excess of fat than from any other ingredient in the food.

Research has demonstrated conclusively that fat favors nitrogen excretion. The higher the fat, the less nitrogen will be retained. High fats usually lead to the development of soap stools. Of the total fat ingested it is estimated that 87 to 98 per cent. will be absorbed.

When we have a disturbance of fat metabolism there results a relative acidosis. Usuki believes that the soap stool is caused by a disturbance of fat metabolism due to excessive fat absorption rather than to poor fat absorption. Bahrdt's[1] conclusions are just the reverse. He regards the soap stool due to a smaller absorption of fatty acids, resulting from an increased peristalsis of the small intestine, which, with an increased excretion of alkali, results in the formation of the saponified stool.

The urine of an excessive fat-fed infant contains an excess of ammonia. The condition called "acidosis" results. High fat feeding results in an excess of volatile acids in the stomach and intestines. If the text-books of ten and twenty years ago are consulted the reader will find that the high fats were generally advocated. Whole milk and cream or top milk were strongly recommended for general feeding methods. That this was a fallacy has now been demonstrated. Finkelstein believes that when the fat content of the food is high, the disturbance caused thereby lessens the tolerance for sugar. Fat disturbances can be made out independent of whether the sugar content is high or low.

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[1] Bahrdt, Jahrb. f. Kinderh., 1910, 249.

Digestion of Fat.—The digestion of fat begins in the stomach and is continued in the intestine. This synthesis of the fatty acids in the fat is a function of the intestinal epithelium associated with the secretion of the pancreas and other intestinal glands. Regarding the absorption of fat, we must not suppose that all fat found in the fæces is unabsorbed fat from the food. Normally the stool contains from 1 to 10 per cent. of fat, besides free fatty acids and their combinations with saponified fats. Fat is not the most important item of nutrition, because fat may be replaced by a certain quantity of carbohydrate. Whether an infant could live entirely without fat and receive in its stead a given quantity of carbohydrate has never been proven. Theoretically it is possible.

Babcock's Milk Test.—In this country the so-called Babcock milk test, invented by Dr. S. M. Babcock, has been adopted in preference to other practical milk tests, in creameries and cheese factories as well as in milk laboratories. The cause of the general adoption of this test is doubtless to be found in its simplicity, cheapness, and ease of manipulation. Briefly stated, the test is operated as follows: 17.6 cubic centimeters of milk are measured into a special milk-test bottle, an equal quantity of commercial H_2SO_4 (specific gravity, about 1.83) is added, and after mixing the two liquids the test bottle is placed in a centrifugal machine and whirled for four minutes; hot water is then added to the bottle to bring the fat into the graduated narrow neck of the bottle, and after a second whirling of one minute the per cent. of fat in the milk is read off from the scale of the test bottle.

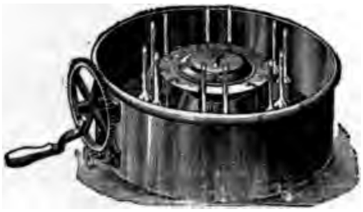

Fig. 43.—Centrifugal Testing Machine, for Handpower.

A determination of fat in milk by this method takes less than fifteen minutes, and when care is taken in sampling the milk the reading of the result is accurate to within one-tenth of 1 per cent. Babcock testers are now placed on the market by many manufacturers of dairy supplies and at a remarkably low price, thanks to sharp competition among the manufacturers. The testers are either hand or power (steam or motor) machines and built to hold from two to thirty or more test bottles at a time. The number of revolutions at which they must be run ranges from 800 to 1200 per minute, according to the diameter of the testers.

The Determination of Fat.—The simplest method is by the cream gauge (Fig. 44). Although its results are only approximate, they are in most cases sufficiently accurate for clinical purposes. The tube is filled to the zero mark with freshly drawn milk, which stands at a room temperature for twenty-four hours, when the percentage of cream is read off. The ratio of cream to fat is approximately 5 to 3; thus, 5 per cent. cream represents 3 per cent. fat, etc.

Another rapid method is by Marchand's tube.

Marchand's Test.—First put into the tube five cubic centimeters of milk, up to the line *M*; then four or five drops of liquor sodæ; shake; add five cubic centimeters of ether, up to the line *E*. Cork, and shake fifteen or twenty times; add 90 per cent. alcohol, up to the line *A*. The tube is now tightly corked, shaken thoroughly, and placed upright in a tall bottle containing water at a temperature of 120° to 150° F. The fat separates and forms a distinct layer at the top, and after half an hour the amount is read off in degrees. By reference to the following table the exact percentage of fat is shown:—

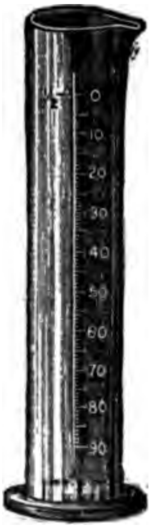

Fig. 44.—Graduated Cream Gauge, 10 · 1½.

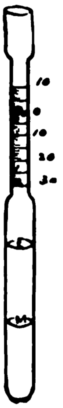

Fig. 45.—Marchand's Tube.

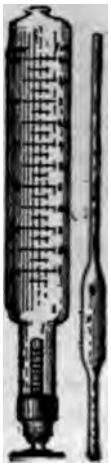
Fig. 46.—Feser's Lactoscope

TABLE No. 20.

Degrees, Marchand.	Percentage of Fat.	Degrees, Marchand.	Percentage of Fat.
1	1.49	13	**4.29**
3	1.96	15	**4.75**
5	2.42	17	**5.22**
7	2.89	19	**5.68**
9	3.36	21	**6.14**
11	3.82		

Each additional degree on the tube corresponds to 0.23 per cent. of fat. To insure accuracy the test should be repeated two or three times with the same specimen.[1]

Another test is made by the use of Feser's lactoscope. (See Fig. 46.) The test is made as follows: Four cubic centimeters of milk are measured off in a pipet, put into a tube, and water slowly added, shaking from time to time until the black lines of the porcelain stem at *A* are clearly visible through the mixture of milk and water. The percentage of fat is then read off on the glass cylinder at the level of the water added; thus, if the water is to the mark 4, it indicates the presence of 4 per cent. of fat. This test is only applicable to cows' milk.

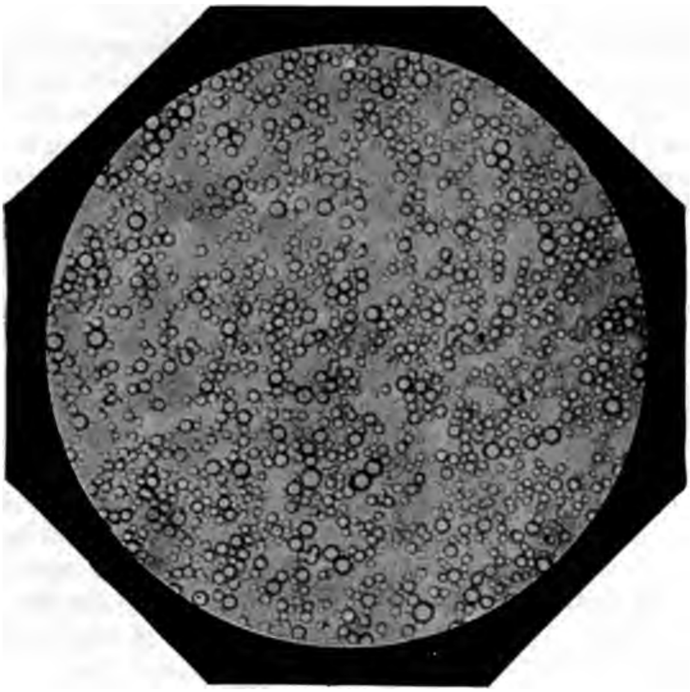

Fig. 47.—Cows' Milk, Showing Fat-globules, Magnified 330 Diameters.

SUGARS AND CARBOHYDRATES.

Each sugar has its specific ferment in the intestine. Maltose has maltase, lactose has lactase, and cane sugar has invertin. These sugars are all acted upon in the mouth by the ptyalin of the saliva. They are further acted upon by the diastatic ferment of the intestine and the pancreatic juice, which transform the polysaccharide into monosaccharide.

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[1] These tubes may be obtained from E. Greiner, 51 William Street, New York.

Before the starches and sugars are absorbed by the walls of the intestinal tract, they must be transformed by means of ferments found in the saliva, pancreatic secretions and intestinal juices.

There are two classes of ferments: the "amylolytic" or "diastatic," which transforms starches into sugars and dextrins, and those known as "invertin" ferments, which, found in the mucous membranes of small intestines and in the succus entericus, give rise to glucose, by action upon the various saccharoses.

The malted foods owe their nutritional value to the presence of dextrin and maltose. No one will question the value of the malted foods for the relief of atonic constipation. The carbohydrate seems to limit the irritating properties of an excessive fat mixture. Likewise the carbohydrate if in a proper amount seems to balance the improper ratios of fat and protein in artificial feeding mixtures. As a rule, 5 per cent. of the food mixture should consist of the carbohydrate element. This, however, need not be considered the point of tolerance of the infant, and the carbohydrate may be given in a gradually increased percentage. All sugars favor water retention; hence the weight of an infant will increase with an increased percentage of sugar.

Malt Sugar.—According to Finkelstein, infants will tolerate a much higher mixture of maltose and dextrin than either lactose or cane sugar. The terms "maltose" and "malt sugar," as applied to the carbohydrate used in infant feeding, are inaccurate and misleading. Pure maltose is a rare product of the laboratory and is never employed in infant feeding. What is really meant is maltose and dextrin. It is of great importance that this maltose and dextrin should be derived properly (not by the acid process, but in a natural way), by the action of the enzymes of sound barley malt upon prime, full wheat.

In many cases of eczema all the sugars, even maltose, should be reduced or perhaps eliminated until improvement is noted. Convenient preparations on the market are Mead's dextri-maltose, to be added in doses of ½ to 1 or more teaspoonfuls to each feeding bottle, or Loefflund's malt and Loefflund's maltose may be given in the same dosage.

Milk Sugar (Lactose).—Milk sugar causes abnormal acid fermentation: this results in symptoms of intestinal irritation due to destruction of epithelium which interferes with the proper emulsification of fats; therefore, the presence of fats acts as an additional irritant and provokes loose bowels.

When intestinal irritation exists, caused by the presence of milk sugar, the symptoms will continue even though the milk sugar has been greatly reduced, because even small quantities of this milk sugar will keep up lactic acid fermentation and consequent destruction of the epithelium.

A theoretical reason for the increase in bodily weight when feeding sugar, is that such sugar requires a certain amount of water to hold it in suspension. Large quantities of sugar have a decided influence on the temperature of the body. A rise in temperature will follow when a large dose of glucose is given, and a higher fever curve will be noted when a dose of 15 to 30 grams of lactose has been given. For older children ½ to 1 teaspoonful of milk sugar given three times a day will relieve constipation.

Cane Sugar (Sucrose).—Cane sugar is less irritating to the intestinal mucosa than milk sugar. It is easily assimilated, and for this reason has many advocates. For many years it has been advocated by Jacobi. I have seen good results therefrom. When malt sugar cannot be procured, my advise is to use cane sugar. It does not possess laxative properties. When cane sugar is used no more than 2 to 3 per cent. of the total quantity of food should be ordered.

Cane sugar is employed in commerce to preserve milk foods, which proves that this form of sugar possesses antibactericidal properties.

PROTEIN.

Under this heading we include casein and albuminoids. Protein is the most important constituent of food. To sustain life, to increase growth, to reproduce cell waste, and to develop the organism, especially muscle, bone, and teeth, we need protein. In combination with a sufficient quantity of fat, carbohydrate, and salts, the physiological development of the body takes place. The nitrogenous waste of the cells of the body can be replaced by no other element but protein. It can readily be seen that a deficiency in the development, growth, and maintenance of the infant's body depends largely on the assimilation of protein. According to Pavy, the nitrogenous compounds are mainly "histogenetic" or tissue-forming material. By the separation of urea which occurs in this metamorphosis in the animal system a hydrocarbonaceous compound is left which may be appropriated to heat production.

The protein element in milk is best adapted for infants. This animal food can be replaced only temporarily by vegetable protein. Temporary success may be noted in many varieties of feeding, especially when large quantities of carbohydrates, be they sugars or starches, are fed to the infant. When a large gain in weight is desired, then starches and sugars are indicated. Disaster will invariably result from the prolonged feeding of excessive quantities of carbohydrates if the protein is deficient. Not so many years ago, protein was regarded as the element in food causing the greatest disturbance. Cheesy, curded stools thought to be casein indigestion were later found to be fat particles, and the curded masses were proven to be saponified fats.

Further research has demonstrated that colic, eructations, and vomiting are most frequently caused by an excess of fat. What was supposed to be the harmful element and the food element mostly feared, namely, protein, is now proven to be the element giving us the least concern.

An excess of protein has decided therapeutic virtues and its indication in the treatment of catarrhal colitis in infancy has been established. Not more than a dozen years ago our literature warned against giving an excess of protein, and advised giving ½ to 1 per cent. in a feeding mixture. Research studies, combined with careful clinical observations, have demonstrated the fact that double the quantity of protein can easily be assimilated.

The protein molecule is peculiar when compared with the carbohydrate molecule. The toxicity of some varieties of the protein molecule due to the action of the intestinal ferments or the intestinal bacteria will be appreciated when we consider the end-results, such as fever, rash, and general prostration; then we have anaphylaxis.

There is a decided difference between the protein of cows' milk and woman's milk. Boggs[1] states that if a solution of phosphotungstic and hydrochloric acid are added to milk in an Esbach tube, after twenty-four hours the protein will precipitate and the amount can be read off.

When we examine the protein of woman's milk, we find the analysis shows:—

	Woman's Milk	*Cows' Milk*
Caseinogen	Small Amount	Large Amount
Lactalbumin	Large Amount	Small Amount

In woman's milk König finds the lactalbumin is about two-thirds and the caseinogen about one-third of the total protein. In cows' milk the lactalbumin is only one-sixth to five-sixths caseinogen.

As an infant grows older, its power to digest casein becomes proportionately greater. In the latter months of infancy, the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth, its proteolytic function has become adapted to this change in the ratio of the caseinogen and lactalbumin, so that the higher total protein, such as 2.50, 3, 3.50, and, finally, 4 per cent., with the relatively high caseinogen and low lactalbumin, become the proper nutritive portion for the infant.

ALBUMINOIDS IN COWS' MILK.

That there are differences in the amounts of the albuminoids occurring in human milk is proven by the fact that, while Professor Leeds found a variation of 0.85 to 4.86, Professor Meiggs asserts that there was but 1 per cent.

König, an earlier analyst, makes the variation from 0.85 to 4.86. Some of these results give as high a percentage of albuminoids in woman's milk as we find in cows' milk, and I have no doubt in my own mind that the time and habit of extracting the milk has a deal to do with the amount of occurring albuminoids. In other words, when milk is extracted every two hours or less, it cannot contain as much of the cell-material as milk from the same source extracted at intervals of twelve hours. This latter is riper, and it is the non-conformity of the tissue which causes all the difference in the different occurring albuminoids. We know that during the incubation of eggs casein is developed from egg-albumin. This illustrates the ripening of albumin. Furthermore, take an egg just laid by the hen, and boil it, and you will find immature albumin in it, that is, after boiling, instead of being thick and firm, like an older egg, much of it is milky. If boiled a few hours later, all the albumin will coagulate perfectly, because it has had time to ripen. There is no doubt that the albuminoids in milk from healthy animals are all cell-transformations, not an exudate, as are undoubtedly the fats and salts, because these latter we can influence by the food very plainly, but in health the albuminoids are constant without regard to food, while during menstruation, pregnancy, and other conditions, notably febrile disturbances, we find the fats and salts not materially affected, but the albuminoids decreased, increased, or totally changed, as in the case of colostrum. *The casein, besides being riper in cows' milk,* by reason of its stronger growth, is intended by Nature to coagulate into a hard mass, because it is the product of a cud-chewer for the nourishment of a cud-chewer, and the reason why it does not always coagulate in the infant's stomach as it does in that of the calf is that the latter animal's stomach secretes a principle called *chymosin;* this is the principle that curdles cows' milk, and it operates either in an acid or an alkaline medium. *Pepsin will not coagulate milk,* and hence the *hard coagulum of cows' milk* that sometimes forms in the infant's stomach is due to *acidity of that organ,* and this acidity is not always the fault of the stomach, *but of the milk itself.* The variations in the chemistry of the albuminoids found in cows' milk would not be surprising to anyone if he would examine into the condition of some of its mammary sources. Thus it will often be found, on *dissecting a cow's udder,* that there are *old cicatrices,* one or more quarters of the udder intensely inflamed, sometimes a mammiferous duct clogged with a calculus or a clot of fibrin. Besides these pathological conditions, the mammary gland is subject to benign and malign infiltrations, bacillary tubercular deposits, and eruptive diseases of the skin involving the gland and ducts. Therefore, that fibrin, serum, and albumin, in various forms, are found in the cow's milk is not surprising, and it can safely be assumed that any variation in the albuminoids from the normal casein can be ascribed to sickness on the part of the animal.

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[1] Boggs: Johns Hopkins Bulletin No. 187, Oct., 1906.

Curds in Cows' Milk.—Milk curdles under two entirely distinct sets of conditions: (1) it curdles on addition of an acid, and (2) it curdles under the influence of rennet (when the reaction of the milk is either neutral or slightly acid). The two varieties of curds which may be obtained under these circumstances may be denominated "acid curds" and "rennet curds," respectively. Acid curds must inevitably be formed in the stomach after milk has been drunk, if the gastric contents are allowed to become acid. Such curds (we are familiar with them in ordinary life in the form, for instance, of cream-cheese or sour-milk) are probably not sufficiently firm to set up digestive disturbances. On the other hand, rennet curds (such as we are familiar with in the form of renneted milk and of ordinary cheese) may be extremely firm.

CASEIN.

Casein can be fed to very sick infants and will be assimilated in small or in large doses. Casein stimulates alkaline secretion; hence, acts antagonistic to pathological acid fermentation. Casein is, therefore, indicated to combat diarrhœa. This teaching, based on experimental feeding, reverses our former theories concerning the dangers of giving large percentages of protein. This form of food, recommended by Finkelstein, of Berlin, has gained a strong foothold in many clinics abroad. It has been successfully used by me in cases of intestinal disturbance, enteritis (dyspepsia), atrophy (decomposition), and cholera infantum (intoxication). Fever, if present, does not contraindicate the use of this food. It has a low sugar and a low salt content.

Casein Milk (Eiweiss Milch; Albumin Milk).—The milk is prepared as follows[1]: Heat 1 quart of full milk to 100° F. Add 4 teaspoonfuls of the essence of pepsin and stir. Let this mixture stand at 100° F. until the curd has formed (this usually takes about one-half hour). Filter the whey from the curd by means of a linen cloth, and discard the whey. The curd is then removed from the cloth and pressed through a rather fine seive two or three times by means of a wooden mallet or spoon. One pint of water is added to the curd during this process. The mixture should now look like milk, and the precipitate must be very finely divided. To this mixture 1 pint of buttermilk is added.

The composition of this "casein milk" is as follows:—

Protein	3.0 per cent.
Fats	2.5 per cent.
Sugar	1.5 per cent.
Salts	0.5 per cent.

Casein milk should be given in small quantities 2 to 4 ounces in enteritis, and in large amounts 6 to 8 ounces in atrophy, every three or four hours, depending on the age of the infant. Sugar should not be added until the stools are homogeneous. Until sugar is added the weight does not increase. Malt sugar or cane sugar should be used. This method of feeding should be continued for months, but should always be used as a corrective for the gastrointestinal disturbance. It should be used as a substitute feeding if artificial feeding disagrees or deranges the gastrointestinal tract.

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[1] Archives of Pediatrics, August, 1910.

A Clinical Method for the Estimation of Breast-milk Protein.[1]—"Two 'milk-burettes,' each containing 5 cubic centimeters of milk, are subjected to a temperature warm enough to rapidly sour the milk, and are allowed to remain in this warmth until a distinct precipitation can be seen. The burettes are then cooled in water, the milk-serum is withdrawn into the graduated tubes, 10 cubic centimeters of Esbach's solution (picric acid, 5 grams; citric acid, 10 grams; water, 500 cubic centimeters) are added, the tubes are shaken and centrifugated, and the resulting precipitate is read. This reading expresses in percentage the total amount of proteins in the milk.

"Such is a bare statement of the method. I will briefly take up the various steps in detail. The 'milk-burettes' are made of about 10 cubic centimeters' capacity, and have a glass pinchcock or valve and a narrow exit-tube about an inch long (Fig. 48).

"I have tried various forms of burettes and separating funnels, and find this the most satisfactory. A temperature of from 95° to 100° F. is the most rapidly effective to produce fermentation. This I have most conveniently obtained by placing the tubes in a burette-stand, and the stand in contact with a radiator. The time required to obtain a distinct precipitation of casein is from eighteen to twenty-four hours. At the end of this time the milk has distinctly separated into an upper layer of viscid yellow fat; a lower layer of fluid milk, quite opaque above, almost translucent below, and clinging to the sides of the tube, and especially at the bottom, a granular precipitate. The cooling of the milk increases the viscidity of the fat and facilitates its separation from the milk-serum. The milk-serum is received into 15-cubic-centimeter graduated tubes, the solution of picric acid and citric acid added up to the 15-cubic-centimeter mark, the mixture stirred with a glass rod and placed in the hand-centrifuge. The amount of centrifugation required is in direct proportion to the care used in separating the fat. If fermentation be watched and the separation be made as soon as

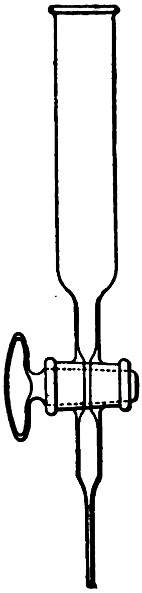

Fig. 48.—Woodward's Burette for Estimating Proteins.

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[1] Reprinted in large part from George Woodward's article in the Phila. Med. Journal, May 21, 1898.

the casein-precipitate is distinctly present, the centrifugation to a constant reading may be quickly accomplished.

"According to Schlossman, of the albuminoids in woman's milk, 63 per cent. are casein, 37 per cent. lacto-albumin, the latter of which is absorbed directly. There is, moreover, according to Wroblewski, in the human milk another protein rich in sulphur, poor in carbohydrate and, according to some, albumoses and peptones that also would be directly absorbable.

"Of nucleon (v. Wittmaack and M. Siegfried, Zeitsch. f. phys. Chem., xxii), there is contained in cows' milk 0.057, in goats' milk 0.110, and in woman's 0.124 per cent. In cows' milk the phosphorus of the nucleon amounts to 6 per cent. of the total amount of phosphorus contained in the milk, in woman's milk 41.5 per cent. That explains why good cows' milk with its inorganic phosphates may give a baby rachitis, while good breast milk does not do so at all." (A. Jacobi, Pediatrics, Nov. 1, 1900.)

MINERAL SALTS.[1]

The growth of the body requires salts. Such salts are found in human milk and in cows' milk; thus, calcium, phosphorus, and magnesium necessary for bone building form a large part of the ash. Cows' milk contains more than twice as much potassium, five times as much sodium, phosphorus, and calcium, four times as much magnesium and chlorine, and six times as much sulphur.

From the studies of Blauberg, Soldner, and Hoobler, we note that the ash intake in artificially fed infants is six to nine times greater than that of breast-fed infants.

Calcium.—Of the ash in woman's or cows' milk one-fifth consists of calcium. It usually enters the body in organic form. The organic combination is present in milk, yolk of egg, and vegetables. Calcium is the largest mineral constituent of the body. It is present as calcium phosphate, which makes up a large part of the bone salts. Jacques, Loeb, and Blauberg have shown that infants who cannot metabolize calcium cannot survive.

The calcium intake in cows' milk feeding is about eight times greater than in woman's milk; the amount actually absorbed and retained is four times greater on cows' milk than on woman's milk. However, a much larger percentage of woman's milk calcium is retained. It is evident, therefore, that the calcium of woman's milk is much better metabolized than the calcium of cows' milk, and, since a healthy nursing infant shows no signs of a deficiency of calcium, we may well consider the amount which it gets as being the true calcium need. The absorption of calcium depends in part on the presence of accompanying salts; for example, if much alkali bases are present in the intake the absorption is diminished, whereas NaCl assists in calcium absorption. Calcium is more readily absorbed on flesh than on a vegetable diet.

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[1] I am indebted to Raymond Hoobler for many points in the preparation of this article.

Woman's milk and cows' milk contain very small quantities of iron. Were it not for the large amount stored in the liver and blood of the newborn there would be a deficiency in the early months of feeding.

The organic forms occur in the nucleoalbumins, in milk, yolk of egg, and in many vegetables.

Phosphorus.—Organic phosphorus occurs in milk, eggs, and legumes. As an organic combination it is found as nucleoalbumin, nuclein, vitellin, casein, and lecithin. The nucleins make up 41.5 per cent. of the total phosphorus of woman's milk, while in cows' milk only 6 per cent. is in that form. In woman's milk 35 per cent. of total phosphorus is in the form of lecithin, while the lecithin of cows' milk is but 5 per cent., according to Stocklasa.

Sodium and Potassium.—It should be remembered that both alkaline and acid solutions exist within the same body; that the blood, various secretions, as well as each body cell, have a definite amount of alkali, and can vary only within very narrow limits, in order that they may perform their proper functions. This automatic regulation of alkalinity of the tissues and fluids is one of the marvels of the human mechanism, and it is remarkable how rarely it varies sufficiently to produce a pathogenic condition. It is for the maintenance of this stupendously important work that the fixed alkalies, sodium and potassium, are used. Albu and Neuberg[1] have explained this self-regulation thus: Through the tearing down of the albumin of the body and the albumin taken in in the food, sulphuric and phosphoric acids are set free and must be neutralized by the alkalies of the blood. These acids would draw out the fixed alkalies were it not for the supply of carbonate derived from the carbonic acid and from the vegetable salts taken in the food. At certain times when the breaking down of albumin is excessive, ammonia is also set free and this is used along with the carbonates for the fixing of the acids. By means of this sort of neutralization, the acids become a constituent of the body, the fixed alkalies remain untouched, and the alkalinity of the tissues is unchanged. Should this reaction suffer the least change, either through a lessening of the bases or an increase of the autogenous acids, the organism becomes at once in danger.

Sodium Chloride.—Of all mineral constituents, sodium chloride has the most important function to perform. Not only does it retain but it excretes water. Because of the well-known fact that salt requires water for its retention, the *salt-free diet* was suggested to relieve œdema and thereby favor excretion of water. Sulphur is found in woman's as well as cows' milk, but its importance has not yet been fully determined.

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[1] Mineralstoffwechsel, Berlin, 1906, p. 70.

Hoobler concludes as follows: Salts are necessary to maintain life. They are best absorbed and utilized when in organic combination with food-stuffs. There are marked differences in the salt content of woman's and cows' milk which should be considered in artificial feeding. Certain pathological conditions arise in which certain of the salts are not absorbed, even though in abundance in the food. In certain other pathogenic conditions salts are actually withdrawn from the body to such an extent as to impoverish the organism and produce grave disturbances of nutrition. The various salts, with the exception of iron, are present in sufficient quantities and proper proportions in woman's milk. In most of the dilutions of cows' milk there is an excess of salts, which may be neglected in feeding normal infants, but which plays an important rôle in the feeding of children already suffering from nutritional disturbances. The conditions under which the salt content of feedings should be altered, and in just what degree each or all should be varied, are still unsolved problems.

The Addition of Lime-water, Bicarbonate of Sodium, or Other Alkalies to Cows' Milk.

Lime-water is the alkali usually selected for neutralizing the acidity in cows' milk. It acts by partly neutralizing the acid of the gastric juice, so that the casein is coagulated gradually and passes, in great part, unchanged into the intestine, to be there digested by the alkaline secretions. As it contains only 1½ grain of lime to the fluidounce, the desired result cannot be attained unless at least a third part of the milk-mixture be lime-water. Instead of lime-water, 2 to 4 grains of bicarbonate of sodium may be added to each bottle, or, better still, from 5 to 15 drops of the saccharated solution of lime.

This solution is made in the following way:—

℞ Slaked lime	1 ounce
Refined sugar, in powder	2 ounces
Distilled water	1 pint

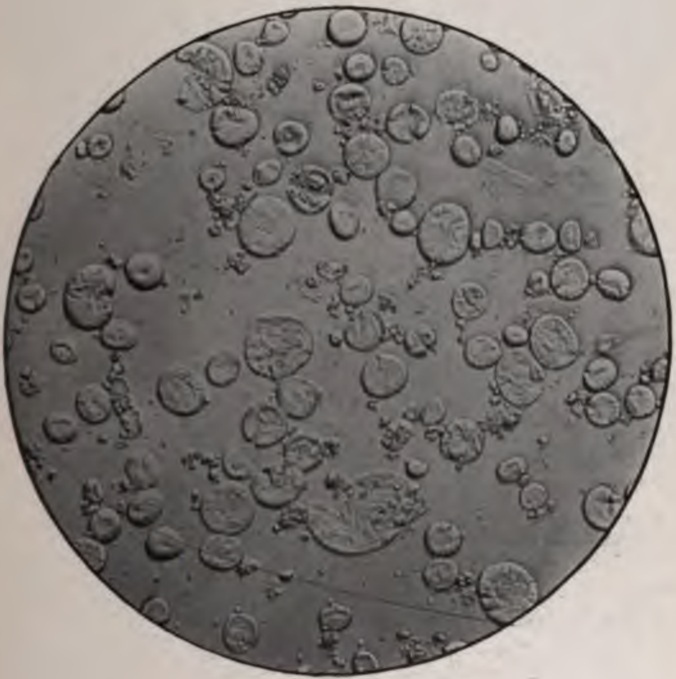
Mix the lime and sugar by trituration in a mortar. Transfer the mixture to a bottle containing the water, and, having closed this with a cork, shake it occasionally for a few hours. Finally, separate the clear solution with a siphon and keep it in a stoppered bottle.

Bicarbonate of Soda Solution (Baking Soda).—Take 1 grain of soda bicarbonate to ½ ounce of water. Or 1 drachm of soda bicarbonate to 1 quart of water. This is the proper strength used for diluting milk.

Quantity to be Used.—One tablespoonful of the last-named solution equals in strength 1 tablespoonful of ordinary lime-water.

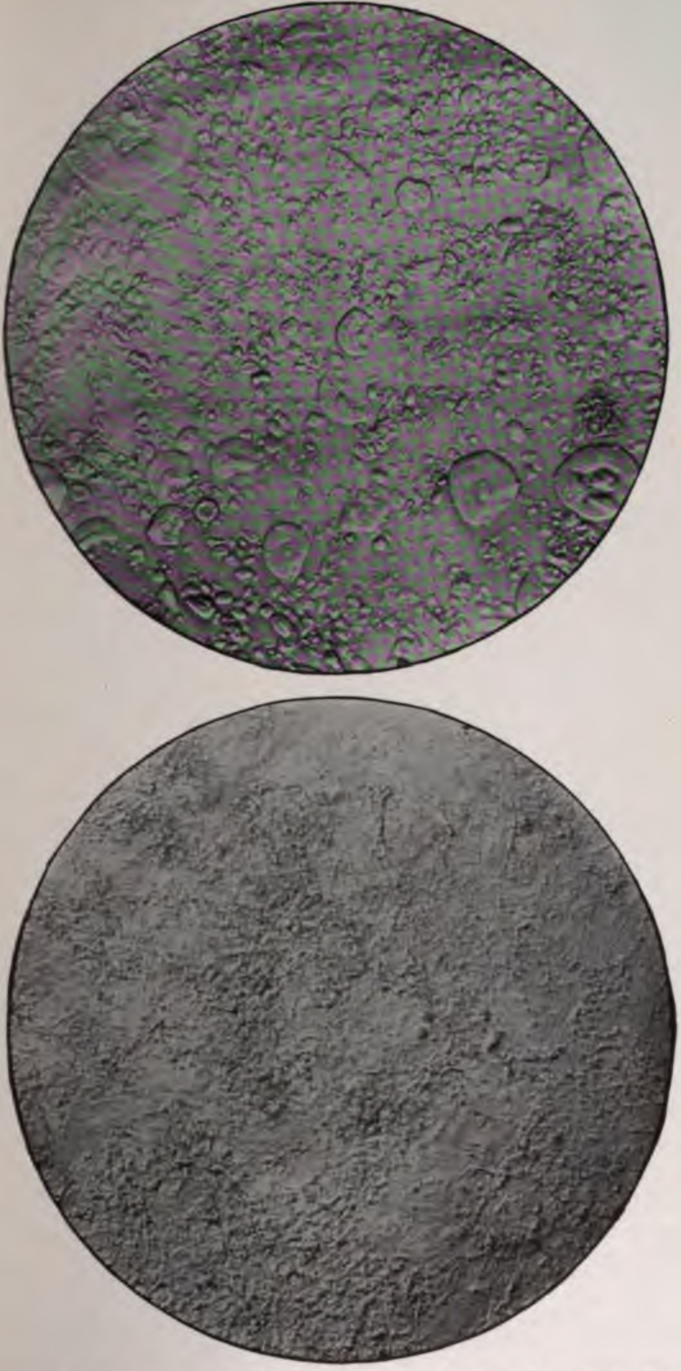
Both lime-water and soda-bicarbonate solution should be kept in the clean, well-stoppered bottles and in a cool place.

PLATE VIII



Microscopic Appearance of Raw Starch-granules.

PLATE IX



Microscopic Appearance of Starch granules, showing the effect of Heat.

eaching that lime-water should be added to render cows' milk nd thereby resemble human milk, has been studied by Kerley, and Meyers, whose conclusions are very interesting. They say

ast-milk and cows' milk are both acid.

e litmus-paper test for milk is unreliable because of the variae quality of litmus paper, and the litmus taking part in the id not acting as an indicator.

e effect of adding lime-water or bicarbonate of sodium to feeding or inhibit the formation of curds by rennet.

e teaching that lime-water, bicarbonate of sodium, or carbonate m should be added to fresh milk or feedings simply because they ls is erroneous.

e addition to milk or feedings of alkalies or salts that become solution is an empirical method of aiding digestion by preventmation of dense curds that would slowly leave the stomach and of digestion in the intestine.

e respect I do not agree with them, and that is in regard to the bicarbonate of potassium. In weak infants, especially in marasand in those infants in which "milk colic" appears one or two being fed with cows' milk, I have found that by the *addition* 5 grains of bicarbonate of potassium to each feeding improveinvariably noted. I have not found this improvement when e of soda or lime-water was added.

ENZYMES (EFFRONT AND PRESCOTT).

nzymes, soluble ferments, zymases, or diastases, are active organic secreted by cells, and have the property, under certain conditions, ing chemical reactions between certain bodies, without entering nposition of the definite products which result. These substances important part in the phenomena of assimilation and of dissimioods. In fact, most of the foods which occur in Nature at the of men, lower animals, or plants are not directly assimilable; e the intervention of a diastase in order to be transformed into assimilable and suitable for the formation of new tissues.

STARCH.

aceous dilutions of milk have been in use very many years. They e carbohydrate; besides aid mechanically in breaking up the curd particles, thus rendering it more digestible. The saliva of the infant can dextrinize starch. Starch is not assimilated as such, but is transformed into maltose and glucose. These latter are suitable for the construction of tissues.

Cereals.—In the feeding of infants we should give sugar to supply the carbohydrate element in preference to starchy foods. Cereals should not be ordered until the infant is six months old or until the teeth begin to appear. Experience has shown fair quantities of starch can be digested as early as the third month. My method has been to use cereal dilutions such as barley water or rice water to dilute cows' milk after the third month. When the infant is 6 months old it is safe to feed a small saucer of well-steamed cereal, but care must be used to avoid starch indigestion, which condition is brought about by improper cooking of cereals and by overfeeding or feeding excessive quantities of carbohydrates.

Cream.

When food contains too little fat, or its equivalent (cream), we have fat-starvation, which is soon manifested by symptoms of rickets. One of the earliest symptoms of rickets is constipation, showing deficient muscular tone: a distinct atony of the bowel.

This can be remedied by the addition of fat or cream to the food. Some children are benefited by giving them codliver-oil, butter, or olive-oil; thus, it is plain that each one desires to remedy the deficiency of fat in his own manner.

In buying cream from small milk-stores one can make a rough guess at the proportion of fat in cream by its thickness. A 50-per-cent. cream at the ordinary temperature of the room runs from a jug slowly and in a thick stream, almost like thick mucilage, whereas a 16 per cent. cream runs almost as freely as milk. This is, however, a crude way of estimating the difference between poor and rich cream. It is a very important point to know exactly what percentage of cream we are using, for such mixtures like Biedert's, in which 1 ounce of cream is mixed with 3 ounces of water, may agree very well when we use a 16 or 20 per cent. cream, but might be disastrous if we use a cream containing 10 per cent. of fat. Such infants would not tolerate this rich cream, and might have troublesome vomiting.

Cream for Home Modification.—*Ordinary Cream:* This is made by setting milk at night and skimming it in the morning; it is called gravity, or skimmed, cream, and contains 16 per cent. of fat.

Twelve Per Cent. Cream.—Obtained in the city by using equal parts of ordinary (20 per cent.) centrifugal cream and plain milk. In the country we must use 2 parts of ordinary skimmed, or gravity, cream (16 per cent.) with 1 part of plain milk, or by taking the top layer of milk, after it has stood five or six hours, by means of siphoning.

Eight per cent. cream is obtained in the city by diluting 1 part of centrifugal (20 per cent.) cream with 3 parts of plain milk; in the country, by using 1 part of gravity cream and 2 parts of plain milk, or by using the top layer of milk that has been standing five or six hours, siphoning it off.

How to Procure Cream.—Set aside the ordinary quart bottle of milk on the ice for several hours (from six to eight hours) to allow the cream to rise. After the cream has risen draw the milk from the bottom of the bottle; this can be accomplished by means of a siphon.

To make the siphon, get a piece of glass tubing 21 inches in length and a quarter of an inch in caliber. This can be procured in any drug store. German glass is less liable to crack than American glass. If the glass tubing is longer than 21 inches make a small scratch in it, after measuring off 21 inches, with a three-cornered file, then grasp the glass tubing between the fingers and opposing thumbs of both hands, having the thumb-nails touching each other on the side of the glass just opposite to the scratch. On attempting to bend the glass tube it will break smoothly across, and if there are any sharp edges they can be smoothed by rubbing down with the file.

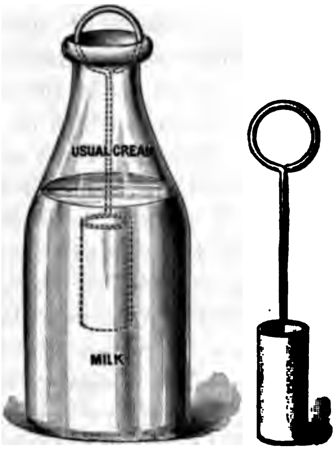


Fig. 49.—Chapin Cream Dipper.

To bend the glass tube to the V shape, hold it in the flame of an ordinary gas jet or alcohol lamp for a few moments, twirling the glass rod until it softens sufficiently to allow it to be bent to the required angle. The tube should be warmed gradually at first, and then put right into the flame. It is better in bending the glass to make one arm of the siphon a few inches longer than the other.

In using the siphon hold it with the angle down, fill it with water, and close the long arm with the tip of the finger; then, keeping the finger applied to the long end, turn the siphon with the angle up, and introduce the short arm into the bottle of milk, letting it rest upon the bottom. On removing the finger, the milk will flow through the tube, and continue to do so until the bottle is empty. It is, therefore, necessary to watch the layer of cream, so that the siphon can be lifted out of the bottle just before the cream reaches it. There will thus remain in the milk-bottle all of the cream and a small portion of the milk, the latter depending upon the expertness of the person using the siphon.

A simpler method of obtaining the cream is by the use of a cream dipper (see Fig. 49). This can be purchased at any large drug-store. The illustration explains itself.

To Pasteurize the Cream.—Take a clear glass bottle having a neck not very wide; fit into the same a perforated cork with a chemical thermometer registering up to 212° F. The bulb of the thermometer should come within half an inch of the bottom of the bottle. The cream is put into the bottle, and the cork carrying the thermometer is inserted; the bottle is then placed in a pot containing a couple of inches of warm water and allowed to heat on the stove. The thermometer should be watched until it reaches 140°, taking care that it does not go above 140°. When the thermometer has reached this point, set the pot back on the stove, where it will cool off, and allow it to remain there for twenty minutes. At the end of this time substitute a plug of absorbent cotton for the cork containing the thermometer. Great care must be taken to keep the absorbent cotton dry. Cream thus prepared is pasteurized, and will keep sweet and fresh for twenty-four hours without being kept on ice, and all that is necessary in removing a portion from the bottle is to be sure that the cotton plug does not become moist, or, if it should, to replace it with a dry piece at once.

To Clean the Glass Siphon.—It is advised to fill it with water immediately after using it, and the ordinary tube-brush having eighteen inches of wire added to it will permit thorough cleansing. Nothing, however, will be found as good as thorough boiling in plain water to which a pinch of soda has been added.

Modification of Milk.—It has been shown previously that the percentages of fat in woman's and in cows' milk are about the same, that the quantity of sugar is rather lower in cows' milk, and that the quantity of casein and albumin is greater in cows' milk, as is also the ash. Experience has shown that cows' milk must be diluted before it can safely be fed to infants. Simply diluting the milk reduces the percentages of fat and sugar too much; so that the practice of adding cream and sugar has arisen, but the processes that have been advocated for obtaining the desired additional quantities of fat and sugar have been too complicated for general use.

The top 9 ounces of a quart of milk on which the cream has risen will be about three times as rich in fat as the whole milk, the top 15 or 16 ounces will be about twice as rich as the whole milk, while the other ingredients remain about the same as in whole milk.

For babies under three months of age the top 9 ounces of a quart of milk on which the cream has risen should be diluted from three to ten times and 1 part of sugar added to 25 parts of food.

For babies under three months of age the top 9 ounces of a quart of milk on which the cream has risen should be diluted two or three times and 1 part of sugar added to 25 or 30 parts of food.

For babies six to nine months old the top 20 ounces of a quart of milk on which the cream has risen should be diluted one-half to one time and 1 part of sugar added to 50 parts of food. An even tablespoonful of granulated sugar equals half an ounce.

By following this method the infant commences on weak mixtures that show about the same composition and variations as woman's milk and gradually takes food richer in casein until plain milk is reached.

The diluents used are water, gruels, or dextrinized gruels, which are simply ordinary gruels the starch of which has been converted into soluble forms, leaving the cellulose and proteins of the cereal in a finely divided state. The effect of the different diluents will be mentioned farther on.

The indiscriminate feeding of cream, to strengthen the baby, cannot be too strongly condemned. Many a dyspeptic owes his trouble to overfeeding by a too good mother or nurse. When cream is added, and the proportion of fat or protein is too large, vomiting will result. Stuffing delicate children with cream, regardless of their digestive power, cannot be too strongly condemned. When improper food is given, and the infant's stomach is overtaxed, the excess of food irritates and may cause vomiting. If, however, the food remains, then the gastric mucosa is inflamed by bacterial fermentation of stagnant food. This may result in diarrhœa or in fermentative gastritis, and cause chronic enlargement of the stomach.

CHAPTER III.

HOME MODIFICATION OF MILK.

BOTTLE-FEEDING OR HAND-FEEDING.

THE following utensils are required for the home modification of milk:—

Two-quart pitcher, }
Funnel, } glass or porcelain.
One large spoon, }
One dozen 4-ounce bottles (later substitute 8-ounce bottles).
One dozen anticolic nipples.
One box non-absorbent cotton.
One saucepan (for heating milk).
One high saucepan (for warming bottle before feeding).

FEEDING-BOTTLES.

A proper feeding-bottle is one that has no corners or angles on the inner surface. The bottom should be rounded, so that every part of the same can be properly cleaned. Bottles that have corners and grooves will harbor bacteria.

My preference has always been for two kinds of bottles: 1. Those holding 4 ounces and graduated on one side in both ounces and tablespoons; this saves much time and trouble. 2. Bottles holding 8 ounces and divided off into 16 tablespoonfuls or 8 equal ounces.

Exactness of Ounces.—It may not be out of place to ask each physician to insist on having the graduated ounces on an infant's feeding-bottle measured with an *accurate graduate*, obtainable at every drug store. In many instances the author noted feeding-bottles wherein the ounces indicated were very unequal, and one particular bottle, graduated to 8 ounces, held 12 ounces.

Long Rubber Tubes.—Most prominent pediatrists agree that the long rubber tubes are a convenient place for harboring micro-organisms, and they have been universally condemned.

Care of the Bottle.—Every bottle should be thoroughly cleaned with a brush and a solution of baking soda and water, a teaspoon of soda to a pint of water. The bottles must then be thoroughly rinsed with clear water. If milk has fermented or if some residue adheres to the bottle and the same cannot be properly cleaned, then boiling the bottles will be necessary. In general and for daily use the bottle need not be boiled every day.

›per Time for Cleaning Bottles.—The best time to clean a bottle is ately after the baby has been fed; this prevents the food souring ›ottle, and it is very easily cleaned.

›e bottle brush has a long handle and bristles for cleansing the bottles. ush should be used before the bottles are put into the soda solution. nderstood that the *brush can itself harbor bacteria* and particles of moved while cleansing. It is therefore understood that the brush thoroughly boiled in a soda solution after each use.

oice of a nipple is another important matter. My preference has been for a black-rubber nipple, and it is a very wise point to use a no longer than one week; in other words, old, worn nipples are useless proper management of infant-feeding. Black rubber is softer than

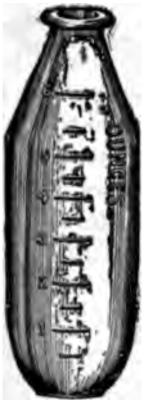


Fig. 50

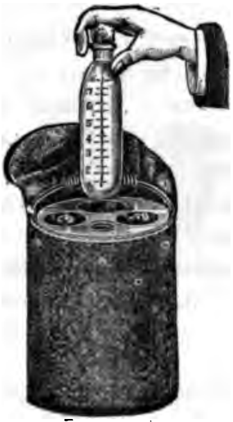


Fig. 51

Fig. 50.—Author's Choice of Feeding-bottle.

Fig. 51.—Bottle Warmer. A convenient bottle warmer, adapted for ping the night feeding warm, is here illustrated. It is made by the nold Sterilizer Co. It is also useful when traveling.

rubber; most white rubber is supposed to contain lead; hence a reason for not using it.

ipples Recommended.—One of the best nipples made is the so-called ic nipple. This nipple has a ball-shaped top, which enables a baby a firm hold; it has three small holes, which give an easy flow of nd regulate a slow meal. Nipples having very large openings, which rmit a baby to finish a 6- or 8- ounce bottle of food in five or six min- e useless, and *this gulping of food is really the cause, or one of the of infantile colic.*

iave used another nipple, but it is much harder to clean, and unless autions for sterilization are carefully noted it should not be used; the hands of the intelligent or where we have a trained nurse, it can be safely recommended. It is called the "Mizpah." This nipple has also a very small puncture, so that the baby gets the food slowly.

The "swan-bill" nipple and the long French nipple I also like. I have noted just as good results as with the above-mentioned kinds.

Ventilated Nipple.—A nipple very highly spoken of is the ventilated nipple made by Ware, of Philadelphia, which has a small opening or valve on the side, and, as the milk is drawn in from the bottle, it permits air to enter, thus preventing a vacuum from being formed. It is also supposed to be non-collapsible, and is highly recommended by those who have used it. The only objection—already offered—is that all nipples must not only be practical for use, but must be capable of thorough sterilization.

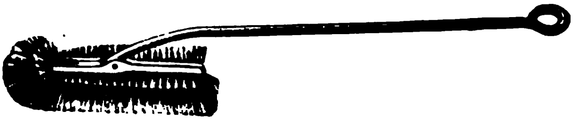


Fig. 52.—Bottle-brush.

Cleaning the Nipples.—The prevention of stomatitis and mouth affections depends upon proper hygiene of the nipple. It does not require much time or trouble to remove the nipple from a bottle ***and throw it into boiling water immediately after using,*** wrap in sterile cheesecloth, and keep in a covered jar. A nipple thus treated is properly sterile.

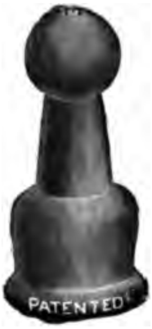


Fig. 53.—Anticolic Nipple.

The nipple sterilizer (see Fig. 54) is a very convenient little arrangement made by Ware, of Philadelphia. It serves the purpose admirably for the sterilization of nipples.

STERILIZATION OF MILK.

When Soxhlet first announced the method of sterilization, he awoke the profession to the realization of the dangers lurking in crude cows' milk aim was to destroy pathogenic bacteria, and give the infant a milk ch did not contain living bacteria.

In order to sterilize milk, according to Soxhlet, we must heat milk temperature of 212° F. and continue this steaming for thirty minutes. know that heating milk produces many changes, some of which are thoroughly understood. Other changes have been positively proven.

Changes in Milk Caused by Sterilization.—In some experiments made Dr. E. M. Hiesland and published by Dr. B. C. Hirst,[1] it was found that sterilization:—

1. The albumin is coagulated.
2. Casein is less readily precipitated by rennet than in normal milk.
3. Fat is freed to a slight extent; fat not freed has a lessened tendncy to coalesce.

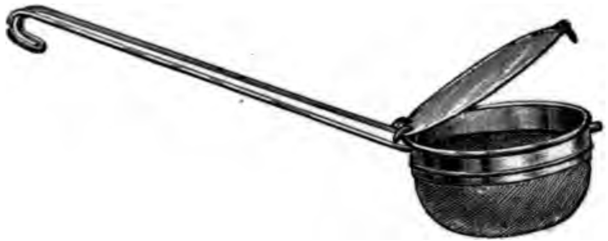


Fig. 54.—Nipple Sterilizer.

4. Sugar undergoes some change, as shown by its lessened dextrorotay power.

The considerations suggested by the foregoing facts are:—

1. The coagulation of milk-albumin by sterilization may render the lk more difficult of digestion.
2. Sterilization interferes with the coagulability of milk by rennet, d presumably, therefore, with its digestibility by the gastric juice.
3. Free fat, as found in sterilized milk, is probably not readily assimited in infant food. The fat not free, being inclosed in a less easily estructible envelope, is probably slow of digestion.[2]

On the question of sterilized milk the weight of evidence seems to show at the process, while preventing undue fermentation, so changes certain of e natural ferments and some of the fats that the milk is less easily gested and less nutritious.[3]

The sterilization of milk is advocated chiefly to destroy pathogenic cteria. The profession has been educated to the belief that we must kill living micro-organisms in food.

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[1] Medical News, January 31, 1891.

[2] Medical Record, February 28, 1891.

[3] North American Practitioner, June, 1892, from the "Year-book of Treatment" ea Brothers & Co.).

When the method was first advocated, the profession adopted it in all parts of the world; so that thousands of babies have been brought up on sterilized milk. Within the last few years sentiment has changed. Sterilization accomplishes the destruction of pathogenic bacteria, but it also possesses certain disadvantages.

The spores of pathogenic bacteria cannot be destroyed by the ordinary process of sterilization.

To properly sterilize milk it is necessary to subject it to the process of tyndallization. This will render milk germ-free. This latter process consists of subjecting the milk to the process of sterilization for at least twenty to thirty minutes on three successive days. For practical purposes it is useless.

The chemical changes produced in milk by the process of sterilization are as follows: The lactalbumin coagulates at a temperature of 160° F. (70° C.). Thus the temperature being 212° F. renders this ingredient decidedly different from what it appears in its raw state; the casein is rendered less coagulable by rennet and appears to be acted upon more slowly both by pepsin and trypsin; the organic phosphorus is changed into an organic phosphate; citric acid is partially precipitated as calcium citrate, and some lime salts, which are usually soluble, are converted into insoluble compounds.

Certain changes also occur in the fat. Moreover, certain natural ferments in fresh milk, believed to be of value in digestion, are destroyed by heat.

Many of these changes are but imperfectly understood, and some of them are doubtless without any injurious effect upon nutrition. There is, however, one important clinical reason for believing that the nutritive properties of milk are impaired by heating to 212° F., viz., the occurrence of scurvy in infants who are fed upon such milk for a long time (Holt).

We know that a great many children fed on sterilized milk develop scurvy. The same is true of children fed on boiled milk. The reason is, Rundlett so ably says: "Changes take place not in the albumin, fat, nor sugar, but in the albuminate of iron, phosphorus, and possibly in the fluorine vital changes take place. These albuminoids are certainly in the milk, derived as it is from tissues that contain them, and are present in a vitalized form as proteins." On boiling, the change taking place is simply due to the coagulation of the globulin, or protein molecule, which splits away from the inorganic molecule, and thus renders it, as to the iron and fluorine, unabsorbable and, as to the phosphatic molecule, unassimilable. This is the change that is so vital, and this only takes place when milk is boiled.

It is evident that children require phosphatic and ferric proteins in a living form, which are only contained in raw milk.

Cheadle says that phosphate of lime is necessary to every tissue; no cell growth can go on without earthy phosphates; even the lowest form of life—such as fungi and bacteria—cannot grow if deprived of them. These salts of lime and magnesia are especially called for in the development of the bony structures.

Avoidance of Scurvy.—Since clinical experience has demonstrated that the prolonged use of sterilized milk and boiled milk will produce scurvy, and that improvement is immediately noted when raw milk is given, or raw muscle juice (beef-juice) or raw white of egg, added to fresh fruit juices, does it not seem more plausible to commence feeding at once with raw milk rather than after scurvy or rickets is developed?

There is a certain deadness, or, to put it differently, absence of freshness, that is lacking in milk that has been boiled or sterilized, just as it is the absence of fresh meats and green vegetables which is known to cause scurvy in the adult.

In my own practice I have so frequently been disappointed in the use of sterilized milk that within the last few years I have entirely discarded its use.

The Disadvantages of Sterilized Milk From a Clinical Standpoint.—The first effect of using sterilized milk is that the child will be constipated. It is for this reason decidedly objectionable. It is wise to remember that one of the earliest symptoms of rickets is constipation. We have known that the prolonged use of sterilized milk results in rickets. The symptom of constipation should therefore be looked upon not as a temporary, but as a permanent, damage to the body. Therefore, it should not be neglected. Appropriate dietetic treatment can easily modify constipation. Clinicians all agree that the prolonged use of sterilized milk cannot be advocated. There may be individual children who thrive on prolonged use of sterilized milk, and I dare say on any form of feeding. We are dealing, however, with average children, and these all show a certain train of symptoms.

Constipation of the most stubborn kind will be encountered in all children fed on sterilized milk. This condition exists regardless of the season of the year. Children do not thrive as well on sterilized milk as they do on milk subjected to a *much lower degree of temperature.* Sterilized milk is rendered less digestible than it is in its raw state.

Freeman[1] says that the modifications produced in milk heated to 212° F. consist in the starch-liquefying ferment being destroyed, the casein being rendered less coagulable and therefore being acted upon slowly and imperfectly by pepsin and pancreatine, and the milk-sugar being destroyed.

Fayel,[2] discussing boiled milk, says that it is more indigestible and in no respect safer than unboiled milk. The temperature at which it boils is insufficient to destroy microbes, and the milk is therefore not sterilized. Its *density is increased* by the *boiling, above that suitable for infant digestion.*

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[1] Paper read at Academy of Medicine, New York, May 11, 1893.

[2] Medical Age, September 25, 1893.

Milk consists of a multitude of cells suspended in serum. The cells are fat cells, which form the cream. The remaining cells are nucleated and of the nature of white corpuscles. The serum consists of water in which is dissolved milk-sugar and serum albumin, with various salts and, chief of all, casein. The cells, with the exception of fat corpuscles, are all *living cells,* and they retain their vitality for a considerable time after the milk is drawn from the mammary glands.[1]

There is reason for supposing that when fresh milk is ingested the *living cells* are at once absorbed without any process of digestion, and enter the blood-stream and are utilized in building up the tissues. The casein of the milk is digested in the usual way as other albuminoids by the gastric juice, and absorbed as peptone. There is also absorption of serum albumin by osmosis. The chemical result of boiling milk is *to kill all the living cells* and to coagulate all the albuminoid constituents. Milk after boiling is thicker than it was before.

The physiological results are that all the constituents of the milk must be digested before it can be absorbed into the system; therefore, there is distinct loss of utility in the milk, because the living cells of fresh milk do not enter into the circulation direct as living protoplasm and build up the tissues direct, as they would do in fresh, unboiled milk. In practice it will have been noticed by most medical practitioners that there is a very distinctly appreciable *lowered vitality* in infants which are fed on boiled milk. The process of absorption is more *delayed and the quantity of milk* required is distinctly larger for the same amount of growth and nourishment of the child than is the case when fresh milk is used.

Vaughan does not believe that milk is benefited by either sterilization or pasteurization, but such procedure is necessary when *market milk* is used, because the latter is seldom or never obtained under aseptic precautions.

Some people have an idea that it matters not how filthy a cow's milk is, or how many germs it may contain, if it be pasteurized or sterilized it then becomes a fit food for children. This is not true, because, in the first place, even *prolonged boiling does not kill the spores* of all bacteria, and, in the second place, the chemical poisons produced by certain germs are not altered by the temperature of boiling milk.

After milk has been either sterilized or pasteurized it should be kept at a low temperature before being fed to the child. This should be regarded as a necessary procedure in the preparation of infant food. The fact that milk in which the colon germ has already grown abundantly cannot, by any process of sterilization or pasteurization, be rendered fit food for children should be emphasized. *The toxin of the colon bacillus may be heated to 180° C. (356° F.) for half an hour without having its poisonous properties diminished. If clean milk be obtained and heated at 140° F. to 150° F. for ten to fifteen minutes and then kept at a low temperature until fed to the child, it furnishes the best food which it is possible for us to obtain under ordinary circumstances.*

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[1] J. L. Kerr, British Medical Journal, December, 1895.

PASTEURIZATION.

Heating milk to 75° C., as is done by many of the methods, does not sterilize, for the spores of the bacillus subtilis can withstand this temperature for several days. The spores will resist the temperature of 100° C. (212° F.) for six hours. Upon heating to 110° to 120° C. (230° to 248° F.) the milk will be thoroughly sterilized, but such heating causes a browning of the milk, and the cream-cells are apt to be broken and the fat or butter will rise to the surface.

Pasteurization with a temperature between 60° and 80° C. (140° to 176° F.) destroys tubercle bacilli and, according to Van Geuns, destroys also the typhoid bacillus, the cholera bacillus, and the pneumococcus of Friedländer, and also most of the ordinary milk germs, and does not injure the milk.

C. H. Stewart gives the following interesting result of the heating of milk at various temperatures, and its result on the albumin:—

TABLE No. 21.

Time of Heating.	Soluble Albumin in Fresh Milk.	Soluble Albumin in Heated Milk.
	Per Cent.	Per Cent.
10 minutes at 60° C. (140° F.)	0.423	0.418
30 minutes at 60° C. (140° F.)	0.435	0.427
10 minutes at 65° C. (149° F.)	0.395	0.362
30 minutes at 65° C. (149° F.)	0.395	0.333
10 minutes at 70° C. (158° F.)	0.422	0.269
30 minutes at 70° C. (158° F.)	0.421	0.253
10 minutes at 75° C. (167° F.)	0.380	0.070
30 minutes at 75° C. (167° F.)	0.380	0.050
10 minutes at 80° C. (176° F.)	0.375	none
30 minutes at 80° C. (176° F.)	0.375	none

We can see that heating milk at 140° F. for ten minutes or for thirty minutes still leaves about the same proportion of soluble albumin as we find in fresh milk. When milk is heated only ten minutes at 176° F. *no soluble albumin remains,* while in fresh milk about 0.375 is found.

There is a slight taste or flavor which is noticeable when milk is heated to 158° F. for fifteen minutes. *For practical purposes, however, milk heated to 140° F. serves very well and has no taste at all.* Pasteurization of milk has been received by the profession with the same enthusiasm as was sterilized milk when it was first announced. The mistakes that have been made by forcing infants to swallow milk sterilized at a temperature of 212° F. for thirty minutes are evident in so far as such children can show a devitalized condition into womanhood and manhood. Constipation and rickets are recognized as associate factors during sterilized milk feeding. The profession at large is rapidly departing from this improper and dangerous method of treating raw milk.

What has been said of sterilized milk applies in a lesser degree to pasteurized milk. I have frequently found cases of infants fed on pasteurized milk that showed the same symptoms, *though in a milder degree*, than what we know to be true of sterilized milk feeding.

When my advice is sought regarding the utility of pasteurizing milk, I always say: You should pasteurize your milk at a temperature of 140° to 150° F., for ten minutes, if you do not know the source of your milk supply. In New York certified milk or guaranteed milk is procured, and it is unnecessary to change the chemical character of the milk by prolonged heating. With certified milk it is simply necessary to use sterile utensils and warm the food to a little higher than feeding temperature.

General Rules of Bottle-feeding for Normal Infants.

No set rule can be given for all infants. Each infant's desires must be studied. The stomach capacity of one infant may be 6 ounces at the age of two months, while another equally healthy infant will be satisfied with 4 ounces at one feeding.

In the home modification of milk our aim should be to give a simple formula, and one that can be easily understood by the mother or nurse. These formulæ, with specific directions added, should be written out by the physician, and the following conditions noted: The weight of an infant to be taken when a new formula is given; the character, color, and frequency of the stool to be noted; constipation or diarrhœa supervised; sleep and general comfort inquired into. Does the infant appear satisfied after its feeding, or does it put its fingers into its mouth and whine after each feeding; does it draw up its legs, is it flatulent; is there vomiting after each feeding, and is there frequent eructation?

Summary.—If the food agrees the infant should be comfortable, have one or more natural stools in twenty-four hours, sleep at least four hours at one time, and gain in weight from 4 to 8 ounces during the week.

Caloric Method of Feeding.

A calorie is the amount of heat necessary to raise the temperature of 1 kilo. 1° C. The determination of the heat energy expressed by a given mber of calories can be applied in estimating the food requirement of ants:—

1 gram or c.c. of fat equals	9 calories
1 gram or c.c. of sugar equals	4 calories
1 gram or c.c. of protein equals	4 calories

The most prominent pediatrists in Europe calculate their food values calories. My experience with this method of feeding has been very tisfactory. When the metric system of grams and kilograms is used the thod is extremely simple. The requirement for the first three months is 0 calories for each kilo. of weight, for the second quarter year about 90 lories; therefore, an infant weighing 5 kilos. requires 500 calories in enty-four hours. Later on, the requirement is 80 calories, and some fants at the end of six months do not require more than 70 calories per lo. Emaciated and premature infants require 120 or more calories for ch kilo.

The simplest method of calculating the given number of calories in a nt or quart of food is as follows:—

The caloric value of 1 ounce of 4 per cent. milk is 20; 16 times 20 lories equals 320 calories to 1 pint, or 32 times 20 calories equals 640 lories to 1 quart.

20 ounces of 4 per cent. milk 20 x 20	400 calories
12 ounces barley water 12 x 12	24 calories
1 ounce malt-soup extract	80 calories
	504 calories

TABLE No. 22.—*Foods and Caloric Value of Each.*

Food, 1 Ounce.	Approximate Caloric Value.
eam (16 per cent.)	54
ilk (4 per cent. cream)	20
ilk (2 per cent. cream)	15
ilk (1 per cent. cream)	12.5
ilk, fat-free	10
hey	6
ndensed milk	132
uttermilk	10
lbumin milk	13
alt-soup extract	80
alt-soup (formula as given)	22
ilk-sugar (by volume)	72
ilk-sugar (by weight)	117
ne-sugar (by weight)	117
alt-sugar[1] (by weight)	110
arley flour (by weight)	102.5
ice flour (by weight)	102.5
heat flour (by weight)	102

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[1] Dextrimaltose, Mead, Johnson & Co.

To make malt soup:—

Cold water	666 parts
Milk (4 per cent. fat)	333 parts
White flour	50 parts
Malt extract (Loefflund's)	100 parts

Mix flour and water and bring to boil. Add malt extract, stirring const and bring to boil. Lastly add the milk, stirring constantly. Bring to boil times, in the mean time cooling it off quickly by standing it in cold water.

Eight level teaspoonfuls of starches or sugars are approximately 1 ou weight.

The formulæ on following page are based on the studied require of an infant of normal bodyweight, which is approximately 45.5 calori each pound weight; hence an infant weighing 7 pounds requires 318 ca in twenty-four hours.

This method is useful in controlling the feeding of infants who a gaining in weight. We can increase the calories up to the rec physiological standpoint, so that this method is in some respects simi the percentage method advocated by Rotch and others.

Formula No. 1 (for an infant from birth to three weeks old, wei about 7 pounds, requirement 318 calories):—

℞ Whole milk	13 ounces
Hot water	12 ounces
Dextrimaltose	4 drachms

Mix thoroughly and heat in a saucepan until steam rises. Continue ste at same temperature, five minutes. Divide into ten bottles of 2½ ounces Feed every two hours. Insert large stoppers of non-absorbent cotton in the of the bottles. Place in a refrigerator, but not on ice. Warm before feedi placing bottle into a deep saucepan of hot water until the food reaches temperature.

Formula No. 2 (for an infant from three weeks to six weeks old, w ing about 8 pounds, requirement 364 calories):—

℞ Whole milk	14 ounces
Hot water	10 ounces
Dextrimaltose	6 drachms

Divide into eight feedings of 3 ounces each. Feed every three hours.

Formula No. 3 (for an infant from six weeks to two month weighing about 10 pounds, requirement 455 calories):—

℞ Whole milk	17 ounces
Hot water	15 ounces
Dextrimaltose	1 ounce

Divide into eight feedings of 4 ounces each. Feed every three hours.

Formula No. 4 (for an infant from two to four months old, wei about 11 pounds, requirement 500 calories):—

TABLE NO. 23.—*Food Requirements of Infants.*

Age.	Weight.	Food Capacity.	Number of Feedings.	Interval of Feeding.	Bottle Formulæ.			Caloric Requirement.
						Ounces.	Calories.	
Birth to 3 weeks	7 pounds	2½ ounces	10	2 hours	Whole milk	13	362	318
					Hot water	12		
					Dextrimaltose	½	56	
3 weeks to 6 weeks	8 pounds	3 ounces	8	3 hours	Whole milk	14	280	364
					Hot water	10		
					Dextrimaltose	⅝	84	
6 weeks to 2 months	10 pounds	4 ounces	8	3 hours	Whole milk	17	345	455
					Hot water	15		
					Dextrimaltose	1	110	
2 months to 4 months	11 pounds	5 ounces	7	3 hours	Whole milk	19	390	500
					Hot water	16		
					Dextrimaltose	1	110	
4 months to 6 months	12 pounds	6 ounces	6	3½ hours	Whole milk	22	436	546
					Hot water	14		
					Dextrimaltose	1	110	
6 months to 9 months	14 pounds	8 ounces	5	4 hours	Whole milk	26	527	637
					Hot water	14		
					Dextrimaltose	1	110	
9 months to 12 months	17 pounds	8 ounces	5	4 hours	Whole milk	35	689	773
					Hot water	5		
					Dextrimaltose	⅝	84	

℞ Whole milk	**19 ounces**
Hot water	**16 ounces**
Dextrimaltose	**1 ounce**

Divide into seven feedings of 5 ounces each. Feed every three hours.

Formula No. 5 (for an infant from four to six months old, weighing about 12 pounds, requirement 546 calories) :—

℞ Whole milk	**22 ounces**
Hot water	**14 ounces**
Dextrimaltose	**1 ounce**

Divide into six feedings of 6 ounces each. Feed every three and one-half hours.

Formula No. 6 (for an infant from six to nine months old, weighing about 14 pounds, requirement 637 calories) :—

℞ Whole milk	**26 ounces**
Hot water	**14 ounces**
Dextrimaltose	**1 ounce**

Divide into five feedings of 8 ounces each. Feed every four hours.

Formula No. 7 (for an infant from nine to twelve months old, weighing about 17 pounds, requirement 773 calories) :—

℞ Whole milk	**35 ounces**
Hot water	**5 ounces**
Dextrimaltose	**6 drachms**

Divide into five feedings of 8 ounces each. Feed every four hours.

Diet for a Child from One Year to Fifteen Months.[1]

The change from human milk to cows' milk sometimes causes gastro-intestinal derangement. For this reason a careful supervision of the stools and general comfort of the infant is required. Knowing the tendency of the hard rubber curd of cows' milk to develop dyspeptic symptoms, it is advisable to give a dose of castor oil once every three or four days to eliminate stagnant residue of food. Many infants show a tendency to constipation when cows' milk is fed. Such infants should receive large quantities of water, orange juice, or prune juice to stimulate peristaltic action. A small saucer of indian meal, Scotch oats, or corn muffin with butter will help to regulate the bowel. Expressed beef juice, 1 ounce given daily, is well borne and will exert a mild laxative action.

Table No. 24.

6.00 A.M.	Milk, 8 ounces (if constipated give Horlick's malted milk, 3 teaspoonfuls in 8 ounces of water). Zwieback or biscuit.
9.30 A.M.	Saucer of farina, hominy, or cream of wheat. Cup of milk.
12.30 P.M.	**Beef or chicken broth with toast crumbs.** Expressed **beef** juice over **baked or mashed potato.**
4.30 P.M.	Apple **sauce** or juice of **orange.**
6.00 P.M.	**Cup of junket.** **Cup of milk.** **Biscuit.**

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[1] In the chapter on "Weaning," I have already described **in detail another** method of substitute feeding for a child about 1 year old.

TABLE No. 25.

DIET FOR A CHILD FROM FIFTEEN TO EIGHTEEN MONTHS.

.00 A.M.	Milk and crackers.
00 A.M.	If constipated: prune jelly, apple sauce, or orange juice. Add 1 teaspoonful of dextrimaltose to each cup of milk.
0 A.M.	Saucer of hominy, farina, Scotch oats, or cream of wheat. Cup of milk.
12 Noon.	Eight ounces of beef, lamb, or chicken broth, thickened with farina, sago, or homemade noodles. Coddled egg, alternate days; steamed rice with expressed beef juice. Apple sauce.
3.30 P.M.	Cup of milk or malted milk. Zwieback or biscuit.
6.00 P.M.	Cup of custard, junket, or steamed rice. Cup of milk. Biscuit.

TABLE No. 26.

DIET FOR A CHILD FROM EIGHTEEN MONTHS TO THREE YEARS.

6.30 A.M.	Orange juice, Apple sauce, or Prune jelly.
7.30 A.M.	Warm milk, 8 ounces; Mellin's Food, 1 teaspoon, or Eskay's Food, 1 teaspoon; Zwieback or cracker, with butter.
1.00 A.M.	Farina, Hominy, Cream of wheat, Oatmeal, or Grape-nut, scalded with hot milk; in addition, a cup of Warm milk, 6 ounces.
.00 P.M.	A *soup*, a *meat*, a *vegetable*, and a *cracker*. Beef or chicken soup, thickened with split peas, sago, rice, or farina.
	Clear broth, with yolk of egg, or one or more ounces of expressed beef blood.
	Oyster or clam broth, Joint of chicken, Broiled halibut, Raw scraped steak, Chicken jelly, or Calf's-foot jelly (without wine flavor).
	Baked potato, with butter; Spinach, or Carrots.
6.00 P.M.	Crust of bread or zwieback. Warm milk, with white of egg; or Cocoa. Junket, custard, corn starch, tapioca, or farina pudding.

Drink of water with each meal.

DIET FOR A CHILD FROM THREE TO TEN YEARS.

A child of 3 years, excepting in rare instances, should not be fed oftener an three times a day. The best time for feeding is: morning meal, 7 to A.M.; noon meal, 12 to 1 P.M., and evening meal, 5.30 to 6.30 P.M.

In rare instances fruit or a cup of milk may be allowed between the on and evening meal. In the majority of cases five hours are required fully digest the food given.

The morning meal should consist of a fruit, a small dish of cereal with cream, a cup of milk, and a piece of toast or crackers.

The noon meal should consist of a plate of soup, a small portion of meat, a small potato, a vegetable, bread, or crackers, or stale sponge cake, water.

The evening meal should consist of an egg or pudding, a cup of cocoa or milk, crackers or bread with butter or honey.

It is safer to give a light meal[1] in the evening rather than load the stomach with heavy food. The American custom of eating dinner at night should not be applied to children.

That milk is very absorptive is well recognized. It is a bad precedent to store it away in refrigerators, unless it is placed in sealed jars, apart from foods which exude odor.

Selection can be made from the following dietary:—

TABLE No. 27.

MORNING MEAL.

Fruit—
- Raw, stewed, or baked apple.
- Grapes.
- Grapefruit.
- Oranges.
- Cherries.
- Peaches.
- Banana.
- Stewed prunes.

Cereals—
- Hominy.
- Oatmeal.
- Farina.
- Force, or
- Wheat Flake Celery Food.

Cereals—
- Shredded wheat.
- Cream of wheat.
- Wheaten grit.
- Arrowroot.
- Cerealine.
- Yellow indian meal.
- White indian meal.
- Wheat flakes.

Buttered toast.
Albert cakes.
Zwieback.
Vienna bread and butter.
Egg in any form.

NOON MEAL.

Meat or chicken soup, thickened with lentils, peas, split peas, sago, farina, rice, or egg.

Meat—
- Broiled chop, steak, or fish.
- Chicken.
- Stewed tripe.
- Sweet-bread.
- Raw scraped beef.
- Roast beef.
- Ham or bacon.
- Lamb.
- Bone marrow.

Baked or mashed potatoes, spinach, peas, beans, tomatoes, cauliflower, carrots, asparagus, rhubarb, cranberries, or celery.
Apple cider, buttermilk, kumyss, seltzer, lemonade, or very weak tea.
Stale sponge cake.
Lady fingers.
Nuts.

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[1] Horlick's Food Co. makes a malted milk lunch tablet, coated with chocolate, that is nutritious and digestible. They are especially indicated when small meals should be given.

EVENING MEAL.

Crackers and milk.
Custard.
Cornstarch pudding.
Corn muffins.
Farina pudding.
Milk toast.
Tapioca pudding.
Chicken jelly without wine.
Calf's-foot jelly without wine.
Junket.
Oysters.
Boiled, scrambled, or poached eggs.
Cream of barley.
Cream of rice.
Cocoa and milk.
Toast or crackers.

Articles of Food Which Should be Forbidden Until After the Tenth to Twelfth Year.—*Fruit:* All dried fruits (with the exception of prunes), preserved fruits, fruits out of season, over-ripe fruits or under-ripe fruits.

Meats.—Pork, sausages, kidneys, duck, and goose.

Vegetables.—Cabbage, radishes, cucumbers, turnips, and eggplant.

Drinks.—Coffee and ice-cream soda.

All candies, pies, and salads must be forbidden.

DIFFICULT FEEDING CASES.

If vomiting or eructations follow the use of whole milk, skim off the cream and use the skimmed milk in the same dilution as we formerly used the whole milk. If after changing from whole milk to skimmed milk the same condition continues, sugar should be discontinued. If the weight remains stationary and the general symptoms are good, we must increase the carbohydrate. For an infant under six months, the addition of ½ to 1 drachm of malt-sugar to each feeding will, if properly metabolized, increase the weight. If the infant is over six months, the addition of malt-soup or malt extract in ½ to 1 drachm doses to each feeding will increase the weight. In like manner a saucer of farina, hominy, or oatmeal steamed with water and served with 1 teaspoonful of malt-soup will increase the weight. If loose bowels and foul-smelling stools exist, fat-free milk should be fed. It is in this class of cases the virtues of Finkelstein's eiweiss milch will be noted.

A study of the infant that does not assimilate its food requires a detailed examination of the skin to see if an eczema is present. We should also study the muscular development to see if the muscles are flabby; note perspiration. The anus and buttocks inspected for excoriation and erythema; likewise the mouth examined for stomatitis. The tongue should be lifted to see whether or no the frænum is adherent. The body weight should be taken, the heart and lungs examined. The presence or absence of distention of the abdomen, the size of the liver, and special symptoms, such as vomiting, colic, and the frequency and character of stools, should be noted. The general comfort of the baby, whether restless or quiet at night, and its condition after taking the feeding are important guides. Thus only can we interpret the condition, and give intelligent advice.

Some infants have gastric disturbance with milk in any of its dilutions. This applies to fat-free milk, to diluted whole milk, or diluted cream. In such cases the alkaline milk, malt, and wheat modification, known as Keller's malt-soup, will usually be tolerated. Try feeding 4 ounces of malt-soup every three hours. If it agrees, increase 1 ounce each day until 6 ounces are given at each feeding.

KELLER'S MALT SOUP.

Take of wheat flour 2 ounces and add to it 11 ounces of milk. Soak the flour thoroughly and rub it through a sieve or strainer.

Put into a second dish 20 ounces of water, to which add 3 ounces of malt extract; dissolve the above at a temperature of about 120° F., and then add 2½ drachms of 11 per cent. potassium bicarbonate solution.

Finally, mix all of the above ingredients and boil. This gives a food containing: albuminoids, 2.0 per cent.; fat, 1.2 per cent.; carbohydrates, 12.1 per cent. There are in this mixture 0.9 per cent. of vegetable proteins.

FLOUR-BALL FEEDING.

The old-fashioned flour-ball is a valuable adjunct in malnutrition. A teaspoonful of the flour added to equal quantities of milk and water is easily assimilated and will be tolerated by very feeble infants.

In a dyspeptic infant suffering with frequent vomiting and atrophy due to the loss of food, the addition of 1 and later 2 teaspoonfuls of baked wheat-flour to each feeding was followed by an increase in weight, comfortable nights, yellowish, well-digested stools, and general improvement. After one month the gain in weight was over 1 pound. After two months of such feeding the infant was able to assimilate other starchy foods, such as arrowroot and cornstarch.

Flour-ball food is known commercially as imperial granum. It is made as follows:—

Tie 3 or 4 pounds of wheat-flour in a muslin bag or several layers of cheesecloth, drop into boiling water, and boil for five hours. Remove from the water, and bake in an oven until hard and dry. After cooling it is broken open, the rind rejected, and grated into a powder.

An infant one month old should receive:—

Milk	1 ounce
Water	2 ounces
Flour-ball	2 teaspoonfuls

Feed every two to three hours.

For an infant six months old:—

Milk	4 ounces
Water	4 ounces
Flour-ball	1 teaspoonful
Dextrimaltose	1 teaspoonful

Feed every four hours.

Rub up the grated flour-ball with a little water; gradually add the full quantity, the milk, and the dextrimaltose. Heat until the steam rises.

DEXTRINIZED GRUELS.

Method of Dextrinizing.—Prepare the wheat, barley, oatmeal, or rice flour by adding a tablespoonful of the same to a pint of water, adding a pinch of salt, and boiling the same for from fifteen minutes to one hour. This will make a gelatinous solution, and hence the name of barley jelly, rice jelly, oatmeal jelly, or wheat jelly. We allow this jelly to cool, and when cool enough to be tasted we can add a diastase, such as cereo; or taka-diastase, made by Parke, Davis & Co.; or the Forbes diastase. When a small quantity of this diastase is added to the jellies above mentioned, they lose their thickness, and *become very thin*. They can easily be strained through cheesecloth, and some water added to make up for the loss by evaporation during the boiling. This jelly, or gruel, as it is sometimes called, made from either barley, rice, wheat, or oatmeal, is to be used with the milk after the diastase is added. In certain diseases where milk is not well borne, such as dyspepsia (dyspeptic vomiting), or in summer complaint, where the giving of milk is prohibited, feeding with dextrinized gruels for several days will be found not only very useful, but very healthful. In making this dextrinized gruel, small particles will be seen floating, which settle out upon standing. These particles consist of the cell walls and the proteins of the cereal, and cut the curds of the milk into fine pieces, when the curds begin to shrink under the combined action of rennet and acid. In using this diastase we aim at breaking up the tough curd in cows' milk by purely mechanical means.

Homemade Diastase for Dextrinizing Food.—Henry D. Chapin[1] describes a simple decoction of diastase made as follows: "A tablespoonful of malted barley grains is put into a cup, and enough cold water added to cover it, usually two tablespoonfuls, as the malt quickly absorbs some of the water. This is prepared in the evening and placed in the refrigerator overnight. In the morning the water, looking like thin tea, is removed with a spoon or strained off, and is ready for use. About a tablespoonful of this solution can be thus secured, and is very active in diastase. It is sufficient to dextrinize a pint of gruel in ten to fifteen minutes."

During the summer, in the critical cases of summer complaint in which subnormal digestion existed, the author has seen very good results follow the administration of any and all of the malt extracts now in our market. Frequently the administration of a half-teaspoonful of malt extract to an infant immediately before feeding was not only relished by the infant on account of the pleasant taste of the malt, but certainly aided in the assimilation of the food. Rarely was more than three teaspoonfuls of malt ordered during twenty-four hours. Such preparations as maltine give very good results. The malt extract has a very pleasant flavor and is well borne.

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[1] Journal of the American Medical Association, July 14, 1900.

Frequently, when expense proved an important item, sufficient dextrinization of foods could be procured with these malt preparations above cited.

NUTRITIONAL DISTURBANCES.

Weight Disturbance (Mild).—There are four clinical conditions, according to Finkelstein's classification, in which disorders of nutrition and faulty metabolism occur. First is the mildest form of intestinal disturbance in which we find weight fluctuations. In spite of the food being sufficient in quantity, there is no regular gain in weight. In addition to the fluctuation of weight, the temperature varies, the appetite is poor, and the food tolerance is lessened.

When a very rich cream mixture with high fat content is given, the excess of fat acts as an irritant and causes the symptoms of fat indigestion. These are chiefly soap stools and an increased ammonia output in the urine. Unless this condition is corrected by lowering the percentage of fat, symptoms pointing to disturbance in the digestive tract will appear.

Dyspepsia (Moderate).—In dyspepsia, the moderate form of weight disturbance, we have thin, greenish stools containing mucus. The loss in weight may not be marked. There may be vomiting and a slight elevation in temperature. Constipation, obstinate and difficult to relieve, exists. As the condition is caused by excessive fat-feeding, the treatment consists in reducing the fat, and giving malt-sugar or malt extract to overcome the constipation. Restorative treatment, chiefly fresh air, or change of air if possible, will aid in stimulating this faulty metabolism.

The prime cause of dyspepsia is overfeeding. The great tendency to have large gains in weight has led many to prescribe high fats and excessive quantities of carbohydrate, chiefly sugar. This excess of sugar will in time give rise to symptoms of vomiting and grass-green, diarrhœal stools. The abdomen is distended and there is a slight rise in temperature, usually between 100° and 101°. The excessive sugar feeding usually results in eczema of the face or scalp. There is marked irritation and erythematous redness around the anus. The tolerance for food is greatly reduced. Finkelstein believes that when the fat content of the food is high the excess of fat causes the lowering of the tolerance for sugar. The condition is frequently found in infants fed on condensed milk. Herein we have a distinct sugar disturbance, colic due to excessive fermentation, and flatulence. If this condition is neglected and the food elements not corrected, serious results will follow.

An infant 3 months old, gaining in weight, with yellow stools, was suddenly deprived of its mother's milk and weaned. It was fed on cows' milk, 3 ounces; sterile water, 3 ounces; and malt-sugar, ½ teaspoonful, every three hours. After three days, vomiting, curded stools, and flatulence were noted. The diagnosis of dyspepsia was made. The formula was changed to skimmed milk, 3 ounces; sterile water, 3 ounces; and malt-sugar, ½ teaspoonful. The symptoms appeared milder, but continued until the sugar was stopped, and equal parts of sterile water and skimmed milk were given. After one week ½ teaspoonful of Loefflund's malt extract was added to every other feeding. In two weeks the formula was increased to skimmed milk, 4 ounces; sterile water, 3 ounces; and malt-sugar, ½ teaspoonful.

The third stage of nutritional disturbance is *decomposition* (severe), in which the most important symptom of malnutrition is atrophy. This is described elsewhere *in extenso.*

The fourth stage of nutritional disturbance is called *intoxication.* Finkelstein proves that it is not the bacteria, but a failure of metabolism caused by an excess of sugar, and that milk-sugar can of itself produce this intoxication. The removal of sugar from the food is followed by a cessation of all symptoms. This condition is described elsewhere in detail.

MILK IDIOSYNCRASY.

In former editions of this book milk idiosyncrasy has been described. The reason for this non-tolerance of milk has proven very interesting. The physician must study the milk formula and learn therefrom which component of the food causes the disturbance. Is it a high fat content, as in cream feeding; or, is it a high sugar content? if so, try to remedy the formula by a reduction of fat, or a reduction of sugar, and in some instances to give the stomach absolute rest for twenty-four to forty-eight hours. This should be done to allay gastric irritation. In this class of cases malt-soup may be used to advantage. In some cases it may be well to feed 1 ounce of food every two hours, for twenty-four hours, and gradually increase the quantity from day to day until several ounces, at one feeding, are given. As we increase the food, the interval between feedings must be lengthened. Instead of two-hour intervals, three- or four- hour intervals may be demanded. The diagnosis of true milk idiosyncrasy should not be made until after a thorough study of the real nature of the disturbing element, and then only if no form of milk—its dilutions or modifications—can be tolerated.

MALNUTRITION (MARASMUS).

When constipation exists and the infant does not assimilate its food as evidenced by stationary weight, the addition of 1 to 2 teaspoonfuls of Loefflund's malt-soup extract to each feeding will improve this condition. If, however, no gain in weight is noted, then Loefflund's malt-soup feeding may be tried.

Vomiting.—When gastric irritability occurs and there is vomiting and curded stools, the substitution of a light food for a few days to one week is indicated. Such food should be condensed milk, 1 teaspoonful, and hot water, 6 ounces, every three hours. If vomiting ceases, then increase to 2 teaspoonfuls of condensed milk and 8 ounces of hot water.

CHAPTER IV.

PERCENTAGE FEEDING.

It is now many years since the Walker-Gordon milk laboratory was established in New York. Their method of feeding infants is based on mixing the ingredients in such combination that when combined they should resemble certain chemical formulæ of breast-milk at various ages.

Theoretically the percentage feeding advocates are correct; practically we cannot successfully feed infants according to definite percentages. Daily variations are important, just as the variations in the human breast occur. The simpler the formula, the less chance of contamination. Blanks are given the physician, which are filled out according to the individual requirement. The age and weight are noted. Fat, sugar, protein, and water are prescribed in percentages. We are, therefore, able to state that the food ordered contains a definite percentage of fat, sugar, caseinogen, and lactalbumin. The same is also true regarding the heating of food. We can prescribe the food sterilized, pasteurized, or raw. Many changes can be made: we can increase or decrease the fat; the same is true of sugar and protein.

The quantity of food prescribed depends on the requirements of each infant. Some infants can take 3 ounces at one feeding, while others appear satisfied after taking 2 ounces of food.

Examples.—For an infant at birth:—

Fat	2.00	Formula I
Sugar	5.00	
Protein	1.00	
Lime-water	5.00	

Milk, raw or pasteurized. Two ounces to be given every two hours.

If the infant thrives, the ingredients may be increased; also the quantity at each feeding:—

Fat	2.50	Formula II
Sugar	6.00	
Protein	1.00	
Lime-water	5.00	

Later, if conditions warrant it:—

Fat	3.00	Formula III
Sugar	6.00	
Protein	1.50	
Lime-water	5.00	

In this manner we can gradually increase the percentage of ingredients until whole milk is ordered. When abnormal conditions prevail—such as loose bowels—barley water may be substituted for the sterile water.

Successful percentage or laboratory feeding will only be accomplished when the physician is willing to supervise the products of metabolism and increase or decrease the ingredients demanded by individual symptoms. For example: hard, dry, saponified stools require lower percentage of fat; a very anæmic condition, more fat and protein; a restless, hungry infant, immediately after feeding, a larger quantity of all ingredients.

It is impossible to make an emulsion like milk from its component parts by a synthetic process. Let it, therefore, be distinctly understood that, once a milk emulsion is broken up, as is done in centrifuging milk and removing the cream, mixing the whole will never restore the uniformity of the emulsion that existed prior to this division.

In domestic modification, of course, the same care must be taken to secure clean, pure milk and cream from healthy, well-kept cows. This is quite possible now in New York, and is becoming easier each year, as more attention is being given to infant-feeding and greater demand is being made for a pure milk supply. Pasteurization is as readily done in the nursery as in the laboratory. Accurate measurement of quantities and cleanliness of vessels and feeding-bottles are equally possible and, in my experience, quite as certain at home as in the shop.

Clinical experience has demonstrated the fact that some children will thrive on condensed milk in spite of faulty hygiene, while others will not thrive in the best environment with the best form of feeding; again, some children will thrive on modified milk; others will not. Some cases seen by the author suffered with intense constipation, having clay-colored stools. In one instance, in which two children in one family were constantly fed on modified milk of varying proportions, the formulæ were changed at least a half-dozen times, with the usual increase of fat and sugar and lowering of the proteins, and in spite of this fact, after repeated trials, and no benefit, this feeding method was abandoned. A child recently seen by the author *did not gain 1 ounce in four months.* This was one of the reasons that prompted the family to change both the physician and the food. The child, about 2 years old, was very pale, restless at night, quite peevish during the day, and decidedly backward in development. It could neither speak nor walk, although the teeth were well developed. From the time the modified milk was discontinued, and a nitrogenous diet given, the infant improved, and from last reports is quite well developed.

Do not let us blindfold ourselves with the belief that an infant is thriving unless it shows a regularity in the increase of weight, sleeps well at night, for at least from six to nine hours continuously, and, above all, assimilates its food, as evidenced by regular, unaided movements of the bowels; such movements should be once or twice in twenty-four hours, have a yellowish-white color, and a mustard-like consistency. If the stool is hard or lumpy or pasty, like putty, then it is certainly abnormal, and shows im-

proper food. The same is also true if the stool contains white, cheesy curds, showing a fat indigestion. In one infant, which had taken modified milk continuously for seven months, an obstinate constipation was only relieved after full doses of codliver-oil and extract of malt were given for several weeks—aided by massage, besides changing the diet.

It is, therefore, very necessary to continually watch the baby, and when abnormal conditions such as anæmia prevail, it is wise to give restoratives for a long period in addition to the food. Note if the food is deficient in its nutritive elements, and, if so, change the formula so as to adapt it to the baby. *Do not give medicine* when the quality or quantity of food is deficient. *Remedy the food first;* then, if not satisfied, give medication.

An unusual pallor of the skin, and also of the conjunctival mucous membrane, has frequently been noticed in modified-milk babies. In one instance an extreme leucocytosis was noticed, for the treatment of which iron was given. An examination of a drop of blood showed a diminution of the red blood-corpuscles and an excess of the white blood-corpuscles. A decided hæmic murmur was noticeable in the vessels of the neck in a child 2 years old which had been fed continually on modified milk.

Craniotabes, softening of the cranial bones, as well as very late closing of the anterior fontanel, have also been observed in some children fed with this form of food.

CHAPTER V.

OTHER SUBSTITUTE FOODS.

GOATS' MILK.

MY experience with goats' milk has been rather good. The following case will serve to illustrate the manner in which goats' milk was used:—

An infant, seven months old, was seen by me in consultation. She could not digest cows' milk, but suffered vomiting, with intestinal colic, and had cheesy and curded stools. When goats' milk was given in the same quantity as cows' milk, the acute indigestion subsided.

In a second case, an infant, one month old, vomited whenever cows' milk was given, and suffered with dyspeptic catarrh. The symptoms subsided when the infant was put to the breast of a wet-nurse. After several months wet-nursing the infant was again given cows' milk, and again the symptoms returned. As we could not procure a wet-nurse, goats' milk diluted with rice water, using four ounces of goats' milk with four ounces of rice water, and one teaspoonful of sugar, was given. The child, six months old, was fed once every three hours. After one week's feeding we increased the quantity of goats' milk to five ounces and decreased the rice water to three ounces. When the child was nine months old pure goats' milk, pasteurized for ten minutes at a temperature of 158° F., was fed, with very satisfactory results. The child gained in weight and had yellowish stools.

Barbellion[1] has for years been an ardent advocate of the introduction of goats' milk for infants and invalid diet. He describes tests which show that the coagulum is soft and very soluble, like that of human and asses' milk, while the coagulum from the cows' milk is more compact and difficult to digest. Comparative tests with gasterin showed that, while cows' milk was scarcely affected by it during twenty hours, human, goats', and asses' milk were completely digested.

He reports a number of cases showing the remarkable manner in which infants thrive on goats' milk. The Academie voted in favor of his conclusions as to the advisability of establishing numerous goat milk depots throughout the city. One of the principal advantages of the goat for this purpose is that it is refractory to tuberculosis.

BUTTERMILK FEEDING.

A very elaborate paper on the subject of buttermilk feeding, by Dr. Teixeira de Mattos, of Rotterdam, has been published.[2] He cites de

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[1] Goats' Milk for Infant Feeding. Barbellion (Paris). Bulletin de l'Academie de Médecine (Paris).

[2] Jahrbuch für Kinderheilkunde, January, 1902.

Jager, who published a paper[1] recommending this form of feeding; Karger; Houwing,[2] and private and public reports of Schlossmann, Heubner, Soltmann, Finkelstein, de Mattos, and others.

Buttermilk.—Take 1 quart (liter) of buttermilk; add 1 even tablespoonful of rice, wheat, or other flour desired (about 10 to 18 grams); heat the mixture over a small gas fire, with constant stirring, until it has boiled up three different times (requiring about twenty-five minutes); then add 2 or 3 tablespoonfuls (about 70 to 90 grams) of cane sugar or beet sugar. It is better to use new enameled ware or agate ware for preparing this food. The food as above prepared assumes a yellowish color.

It is necessary to have wide mouths for the bottles, as the food coagulates and gets lumpy, in which event it would require occasional shaking to bring the thickened portion to the proper consistency.

Bulgarian Milk.—Milk soured with either a pure culture of the lactic acid bacillus, or tablets containing the Bulgarian bacillus, must not be confounded with ordinary buttermilk. By the action of the lactic acid on the casein of the whole milk, one transforms the casein into a soluble casein lactate.

How to Prepare.— Boil the milk and, when cool, skim off the skin that rises. To one quart of boiled milk add one teaspoonful of pure culture of the lactic acid bacillus, or one tablet containing such bacillus, made by the Fairchild Brothers & Foster, or by Parke, Davis & Co. Set this inoculated milk in a warm place for twenty-four to forty-eight hours. The lumpy mixture must then be thoroughly shaken, and if of a thick, creamy consistency must be placed in a refrigerator to retard further souring.

Graanboom, in his book on "Diseases of the Digestive Tract in Children" (1901), states that he also is very much impressed with the value of buttermilk as an infant-food.

De Mattos states that children so fed for a period of six to eight months show signs of rickets or late dentition, although they look well and appear to be well nourished. Whether other methods are worse he does not state.

Lactic acid was never found in the urine of infants fed either with lactic acid or salts. This series of experiments was made by de Mattos, and the results were corroborated by Houwing.

The amount of lactic acid present in buttermilk has been carefully studied. Robertson, a chemist, found it to be:—

Minimum	0.09 per cent.
Maximum	0.45 per cent.

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[1] Nederlandsch Tydschrift voor Geneeskundigebladen, October, 1895.

[2] Centralblatt für Gynäkologie, 51, 190.

De Jager believes that good buttermilk does not contain more than 0.5 r cent. of free lactic acid.[1] These are, however, not absolute and positive ta, but really individual hypotheses.

Contrary to the ideas of Munk, Uffelmann, and Ewald (who fear the e of food containing lactic acid), de Mattos has found that chronic teritis and gastric complaints soon improve when an exclusive buttermilk eding is resorted to. Hayem and Lesage regard lactic acid as entirely nocuous for nurslings. According to the above-named investigators, lactic cid is not toxic for infants. They gave experimentally 15 to 20 grains in ivided doses, mixed with sugar, without seeing any detrimental results. aworski[2] found no trace of lactic acid in an infant's stomach one hour fter administering it.

Riel maintains that lactic acid improves digestion, while Duclaux[3] states that lactic acid is a valuable astringent. Heubner[4] found lactic acid in the stomach of two healthy infants (to the extent of 0.16 to 0.2 per cent.). Marfan (quoting Zotow) maintains that, when lactic acid is found in the stomach of infants, it is always a pathological factor.

Buttermilk in its crude (raw) state is certainly antagonistic to other micro-organisms. This is due to the presence of lactic acid bacilli. Raw cows' milk possesses bactericidal properties, but buttermilk is much more bactericidal. The latter, sterilized with the aid of steam, showed virulent typhoid bacilli nine days after being inoculated with the same. *In non-sterilized buttermilk (raw state) virulent typhoid bacilli lost their virulence after two days, and when put into the brooding oven lost their virulence after twenty-four hours.* The bacillus lacticus of Pasteur and Hueppe seems to be identical with the bacillus lactis aërogenes of Escherich,[5] which is found in the upper part of the small intestine.

Jaworski found that pepsin is more readily secreted when lactic acid is given internally. De Mattos states that he has never met with a case of Barlow's disease among infants fed with buttermilk.

Disagreeable symptoms are frequently encountered for the first few weeks while giving buttermilk. Such are frequent vomiting and diarrhœa. These are not contra-indications for feeding, and, *notwithstanding the resence of the above-named symptoms,* the feeding should be continued. f, however, the symptoms are very severe, then the administration of astrinents—such as bismuth, argent. nitrate, tannalbin, or ichthalbin—may be equired for temporary relief.

An important point is that in this form of infant-feeding the large, thick, cheesy curds so commonly met with in dyspepsia and diarrhœas in feeding with cows' milk are never seen. Children thus fed seem to withstand the infectious diseases very well. A point worth noting is that when a child is more accustomed to buttermilk feeding the change to sweet milk will cause diarrhœa.

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[1] Nederlandsch Tydschrift voor Geneeskundigebladen, 1899, i, S. 945.

[2] Deutsches Archiv für klinische Medicin, Bd. xxxvii, i.

[3] "Maladies de l'Enfance," tome ii, p. 606.

[4] "Jahrbuch für Kinderheilkunde," 1891.

[5] "Die Darmbacterien des Sauglings," Stuttgart, 1886.

When we find that the weight is not increased and we desire to change to sweet milk, the latter should be gradually added to the buttermilk instead of making a distinct change suddenly.

Quality of the Buttermilk.—This is the most important part of our subject. In securing our food we must be sure that we are dealing with honest dairymen whose sole object is to deliver what is demanded for weak infants. Stale combinations made by the use of left-over centrifugal milk or skim-milk or spoiled milk which cannot be used otherwise should be inquired into and rejected.

Good buttermilk can be made from either whole milk or from cream. In Holland buttermilk is made by pasteurizing cream in Timpe's apparatus and then inoculating and buttering the same with a pure culture of lactic-acid bacillus. In order that raw milk will yield buttermilk a certain percentage of acidity must be present.

The usual precautions in milking (so-called modern stable hygiene) must be observed in securing milk to be used in making buttermilk. The milk should be received in sterile vessels and rapidly cooled, and should then be kept in cool cellars or ice-coolers having a low temperature (no higher than 15° or 20° C.) for eighteen to twenty-four hours. It is necessary to stir the milk occasionally. Rapidity of souring can be assisted by adding sour milk or by inoculating with a pure culture of lactic-acid bacilli. No definite rule can be laid down as to when buttering takes place; empiric methods must decide this matter. This is due to the size of the vessel used and the influence of seasonal changes, and also the amount of churning it had received. Cows' milk which contains colostrum or which is bitter is not adapted for buttering.

Butter should form in small, pin-head-sized particles in thirty to forty-five minutes. It is regarded as a mistake to have large particles of the size of a pea or larger, and dairymen look upon such buttermilk with suspicion. Buttermilk in general contains about 0.3 to 0.4 per cent. of fat.

Escherich states that the fermentation of milk is due to the splitting up of the milk-sugar, whereby lactic acid, O, and CO_2 are formed in the intestine.

Table No. 28, on following page, is instructive in showing the percentage of acidity present and also the difference in fat.

TABLE No. 28.

	Specific Gravity.	Solids, Percentage.	Fat.	Acidity According to Soxhlet-Henkel.
Sour milk before buttering	1.029	11.40	2.8	18.1
Buttermilk	1.029	9.60	0.5	16.1

There is, therefore, a difference of 2 per cent. in the amount of acidity present in favor of buttermilk.

An important point is to overcome the lumps usually found as coarse coagula in buttermilk. De Mattos advises adding flour—either rice, wheat, or lentil—or even some proprietary infant foods, according to the requirements of the infant.

This is merely given to hold the flocculi in finer form and to prevent their coagulation into lumps. Dyspeptic children with subnormal digestive powers should receive a minimal quantity; thus, an even tablespoonful, amounting to about 10 grams, will suffice.

Addition of Sugar.—The quantity of sugar to be added must be reckoned empirically; thus, 3 tablespoonfuls, about 90 grams, are required to each liter (quart) of buttermilk. Rarely do we need more than 100 grams.

Cane-sugar or beet-sugar serves best for sweetening. Sugar cannot be found in the urine nor in the fæces of infants fed on buttermilk to which sugar was added.

The results which might be expected from using cane-sugar—such as diarrhœa, fermentation, sour eructations—are *totally absent* in using buttermilk feeding.

Stools.—The average buttermilk-fed infant has no more than one or two stools daily. They are *more or less solid* in consistency and *have an alkaline reaction.* It would be incorrect to state that all children fed with buttermilk *must* have yellow stools. We know that even Uffelmann, in his studies of infant-stools, states that breast-fed infants *show great variations from apparent normal stools and still thrive.* We also know that bottle-fed infants reared on cows' milk *have no definite kind of stool* which we could call a *standard* stool. Still, the buttermilk-fed infant never has the coarse casein particles in the fæces that we see very frequently in the stools of infants fed on cows' milk.

The bacteriological examination of the fæces made by inoculating gelatine plates with diluted fæces showed:—

1. Liquefying colonies rendered Loeffler's nutrient gelatine strongly alkaline. Inoculated into bouillon, the latter remained clear, forming a skim on the surface. Milk was not coagulated by these micro-organisms.

They formed spores, generated H_2S, and can therefore be identified as the bacillus butyricus of Hueppe.

2. Non-liquefying colonies were inoculated into milk-sugar bouillon and left in the brooding oven over eight hours at 37° C. All tubes so treated were turbid on standing over night; this fact excludes the possibility of its being the bacterium coli.

Other properties were found, such as: fermentation in milk-sugar bouillon, no skim forming on the bouillon; indol does not form in peptone solution (bacterium coli would form indol); milk turns sour but slowly; no NH_3 formation.

From a study of the above properties we conclude:—

1. Bacterium coli commune must be excluded.

2. Bacterium coli lactici (Hueppe) (resp. bacterium lactis aërogenes, Escherich) must be identified.

The lactic acid bacillus, found in boiled as well as raw buttermilk, loses its potency in the intestinal canal in the presence of the bacillus butyricus (Hueppe). The latter germ grows in overwhelming numbers and renders the intestinal contents rapidly alkaline.

An interesting point is that, if the buttermilk was originally very sour, the fæces will be very alkaline, showing how weak the bacterium acidi lactici is.

Feeding.—The writer has seen excellent results from buttermilk feeding in atrophic and marasmic children. As an article of diet during convalescence after pneumonia and typhoid fever the results were encouraging.

Quantity to be Fed.—Buttermilk as above prepared should be fed exactly as would other milk. Four ounces, increased to 5 or 6 ounces, can be fed every 3 hours, or the interval may be prolonged to 3½ or 4 hours. It will be necessary to coax the child in the beginning with this new form of feeding, owing to the difference in the taste of fresh milk and buttermilk.

Lahmann's Vegetable Milk.

In Europe, and recently also in our country, the feeding of infants has been enriched with a new product; thus, Dr. Lahmann believes that the great panacea is feeding infants with milk which he designates as "vegetable milk." It resembles a thick jelly, and is made by Hewwel & Veithen, of Cologne. His theory consists, in brief, in substituting nuts and almonds, which are rich in albumin and fat, instead of cereals to dilute milk, his idea being that an emulsion which is digestible and supposed to be rich in albumin is doubtless better than pure water or a thin starch paste. In order to add food salts, which are not supplied by this means, he extracted them from leaf vegetables, which are rich in food salts, and added some sugar syrup. In this manner he claims to have made a preparation which he states is chemically equal to human milk, and full of nutritive value. His idea is that the interposition of plant-albumin (conglutin) particles, which coagulate with difficulty between the coagulating casein masses, would increase their digestibility by breaking them up, and that the digestion of the plant-albumin and oil, as well as of the sugar and food salts, would present no difficulty.

Stutzer, of the University of Bonn, reports thus: The vegetable milk is distinguished from children's food by the absence of starchy substances. In common with Biedert's cream mixture, the vegetable milk contains considerable quantities of fat in an emulsified condition. It differs from the cream mixture in the way it is prepared, and in its other qualities.

CHEMICAL ANALYSIS.

Fat	34.72 per cent.
Plant-casein and similar nitrogenous constituents	12.00 per cent.
Sugar and plant-dextrin	31.02 per cent.
Salts	1.64 per cent.
Water	20.62 per cent.

My own personal experience has been rather favorable with the use of the vegetable milk, inasmuch as an emulsion of almonds and nuts was used to dilute the curd of cows' milk. Thus, equal parts of vegetable milk with cows' milk were taken by an infant for several months, and it was very well assimilated. Not only did the child gain in weight, but the bowels were in a fair condition, and the infant remained strong.

CONDENSED MILK OR CONDENSED CREAM.

Hundreds of infants are fed with condensed milk. This has its reasons:—

1. The readiness with which condensed milk is obtained.
2. The great cheapness of this article.
3. The ease with which the feeding mixture can be prepared.

Jacobi says that some manufacturers use pure cows' milk; others find it in accordance with the health of their bank accounts to use skimmed milk.

Quantity of Sugar in Condensed Milk.—Milk sold in our city for immediate use contains about 12 to 15 per cent. of sugar. Milk to be kept for an indefinite time contains as much as 50 per cent. of sugar. These variations show how serious it is to *use the same quantity* of condensed milk *all the time* and from different sources with such an *enormous variation in the quantity* of sugar.

Kehrer—quoted by Jacobi—states, regarding it, that it increases the formation of lactic acid. Fleischman states that it gives rise to thrush and diarrhœa; Daly, that it fattens them (?), but gives rise to rachitis.

The worst specimens of rachitis and spinal rickets seen in my clinic are in condensed-milk babies. Our medical literature reports many cases of apparent health in infants fed on condensed milk. It has led Dessau, with a large experience with infants, to mention such a method, although he advocates cows' milk, properly modified, for continued use.[1]

In traveling, when good fresh cows' milk cannot be obtained, then I permit the use of condensed milk, but for a few days or for a week only, as on the ocean steamer, where cows' milk cannot be had.

My experience among thousands of children seen in my Children's Service at the German Poliklinik and also at the service at the West-Side German Dispensary during these last fifteen years has been that children so fed have rickets; that they are predisposed to the infectious disorders; that they have less resistance and far less vitality, especially in combating such diseases as pneumonia or diphtheria; that they have tendencies to hernias and deformities, owing to the softer condition of their muscles and bones; that they invariably suffer with constipation, alternating with diarrhœa; that their dentition is delayed, compared with other methods of hand feeding. Thus summing it up, I cannot approve of this method at all.

Condensed cream will be lauded by the mother whose baby is well, and again the same food will be condemned by the mother of an infant whose rickety head, bones, and muscles are founded on an impoverished diet of condensed milk. We can account for the rickety child, but we cannot account for the healthy one on the same food.

The directions on the tin of the Anglo-Swiss Condensed Milk Company's Milkmaid Brand of condensed milk are, for new-born infants, add 14 parts of water; as the child grows older, gradually use less water, but never less than 7 parts.

On studying the clinical relationship of the component parts of condensed milk, it is very apparent that, diluting the Eagle brand of condensed milk with 14 parts of water, we have but 0.7 per cent. of protein, 0.6 per cent. of fat, and 3.5 of sugar. The deficient bone-building and muscle-forming ingredients account for the rachitis which invariably results.

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[1] See my paper on infant-feeding (read before the Society for Medical Progress, April 11, 1896), published *in extenso* in Pediatrics for July 15, 1896.

CHAPTER VI.

PROPRIETARY INFANT FOODS.

Patent Foods.

There are a great many infant foods in use at the present time. No one will question the large amount of foods sold. This is due to several reasons: First, because the laity have been educated to use them, when cows' milk or even when breast-milk, in rare instances, disagrees; second, physicians of large experience advocate the use of a great many patent foods. When disturbances in the stomach or intestines interfere with the proper digestion and assimilation of the proteins, then frequently the modification of the milk, by the addition of these foods, yields good results. In some instances where there is no appetite we frequently can stimulate an appetite by advocating the temporary use of these foods.

In the large cities, where breast-milk is unobtainable for infants, these foods are frequently given.

During the course of summer complaint, typhoid fever, or acute infectious diseases, I have frequently advised the use of diluted milk with several teaspoonfuls of a nutritious food, rich in barley malt. The objectionable features of patent foods consist in the ease with which they are procured, and the careless manner in which they are given. Thus, a large portion of the laity will follow the directions on the label of the box of patent food to the detriment of the child. Many a case of rickets or scurvy can be traced to ignorance in giving patent foods. We know, however, that *there are some virtues in these patent foods*, and to attribute all cases of rickets or scurvy to this one cause is wrong. Investigations made by the American Pediatric Society showed that a large number of children fed on sterilized milk suffered with scurvy. A great many facts must therefore be considered before condemning or praising one or all of the foods. Every physician knows that raw milk or milk warmed to blood heat possesses anti-scorbutic properties. When a given commercial food is added to raw milk, thoroughly mixed, and heated to blood heat or to a pasteurizing temperature, we still retain the virtues of the milk and increase its nutritive value with the aid of the foods selected. Roughly speaking, there are two kinds of infant foods on the market: (*a*) Infant foods to be used as adjuncts to fresh cows' milk. (*b*) Infant foods in which desiccated cows' milk is a constituent.

These foods are commonly known as dried-milk foods, although in this class of foods milk solids constitute but from one-eighth to one-fourth the substance of the foods, the balance consisting of matter derived from cereals. In some of these foods the starch of the cereals is untransformed, and they may be termed farinaceous dried-milk foods. In others the starch of the cereals has been transformed into dextrin and maltose, and they may be termed dried malted milk foods.

The group of infant foods used as adjuncts to cows' milk are either farinaceous foods, made from cereals and consisting largely of unconverted starch, or malted foods, also made from cereals, but having the starch transformed into soluble maltose and dextrin. As fresh cows' milk is, without doubt, the best generally available material for the artificial feeding of infants, the foods of the latter class, used for the modification of fresh cows' milk, are more in accord with physiological principles than are the dried-milk foods.

Of the large number of infant foods that have been put on the market, it is my purpose to describe a few commonly known foods. In order to judge fairly of the nutritive value of an infant food and its resemblance to woman's milk, it is necessary to know its composition after its preparation for the nursing-bottle according to the directions of its manufacturer, and the analyses that accompany the following descriptions are of the foods prepared for use for infants six months of age as per directions on the packages.

LIST OF INFANT FOODS.

The following list of infant foods is quite complete, although there are but four or five foods that are used in any quantity, the balance having a small demand:—

Blair's Wheat Food (cereal food; baked wheat).

Hubbel's Wheat (cereal food; baked wheat).

Wampole's Milk Food (composed of predigested cereals, beef, and milk).

Wyeth's Prepared Food (composed of malt milk and cereals).

Just's Food (partially predigested cereals. To be used with milk).

Malted Milk (malted and containing dried milk).

Horlick's Food (predigested, to be added to milk).

Mellin's Food (predigested, to be added to milk).

Imperial Granum (baked wheat).

Nestlé's Food (composed of cereals partially predigested and dried milk).

Lacto-Preparata (dried milk).

Lactated Food (farinaceous with milk-sugar).

Mammala (dried milk food).

Ridge's Food (farinaceous).

Peptogenic Milk Powder (to modify milk).

Pegnin (also used to modify the casein of cows' milk).

Zimmerman Barley Oat Food (cereal).

Nutrico Food(cereal).

Lange's Tissue Food (a condensed milk).

Hayes's Oat Food (cereal).

Allenbury's Milk Food, No. 1 (predigested; prepared with water, contains dried milk).

Allenbury's Milk Food, No. 2 (predigested; prepared with water, contains dried milk).

Allenbury's Malted Food, No. 3 (partially predigested; prepared with milk).

Benger's Imported (cereal and not predigested).

Neave's Food, Imported (farinaceous).

Eskay's Albuminized Food.

Cereal Milk.

Carnrick's Soluble Food.

Diastased Farina.

Coombs's Malted Food.

Robinson's Groats.

Robinson's Patent Barley.

Chapman's Whole Flour.

Scott's Oat Flour.

Milkine.

The published analyses of woman's milk show the great variability of its composition, especially as regards the percentage of proteins and fats. The analysis of woman's milk used in the following tables is by Dr. Luff, adopted as the standard by Cheadle. It agrees closely with Leed's analysis, excepting as to the fat, which is given by Luff as 2.41 per cent. and by Leeds as 4.13 per cent.; the latter amount seems too large, as it exceeds considerably the published averages of a number of observers.

NESTLÉ'S FOOD.

Nestlé's food is a farinaceous dried-milk food. According to the manufacturers, it is made of pure cows' milk, ground wheaten biscuit, barley malt, and cane-sugar. It is a form of modified milk.

No cows' milk is to be added to Nestlé's food—nothing but water.

Upon examination, maltose, dextrin, and cane-sugar will be found to be its principal ingredients, amounting to about 52 per cent. of the whole. The amount of lactose (6.57 per cent.) represents only that contained in the milk used in manufacture.

The directions for preparing Nestlé's food for the nursing bottle, for infants six months of age, are as follows:—

Place the required amount of food in the saucepan and add a sufficient amount of cold water to make a smooth, creamy mixture, then add the rest of the water, and boil for two minutes.

TABLE No. 29.—*Composition of Nestlé's Food When Prepared for Different Ages.*

	Analysis by Dr. Boyce W. Knight.	Composition when Prepared According to Label Directions.		
		For 3d Mo.	6th Mo.	9th Mo.
Milk sugar	7.40%	0.96%	1.18%	1.30%
Maltose	15.60	2.03	2.50	2.73
Dextrin	13.51	1.76	2.16	2.36
Cane sugar	24.77	3.22	3.96	4.33
Starch	17.31	2.24	2.77	3.03
Fat	5.63	0.74	0.90	1.00
Proteins	10.92	1.42	1.75	1.91
Mineral matter	1.49	0.19	0.24	0.26
Water	3.37	87.44	84.54	83.08
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
			Reaction alkaline.	

The total carbohydrate content of this mixture (12.57 per cent.) is considerably higher than the carbohydrate content of milk sugar (6.39 per cent.) of woman's milk. This, however, may be accounted for by the fact that the fat content (0.90 per cent.) is equally lower than the fat content of woman's milk (2.11 per cent.).

It is claimed by the manufacturers that the value of the milk used in Nestlé's food is not destroyed, as the condensing is done in vacuum, at a temperature not exceeding 130° F.

When cows' milk disagrees and gastric symptoms such as fever, vomiting, and intestinal catarrh appear, the substitution of Nestlé's food for several days will frequently relieve this condition.

HORLICK'S MALTED MILK.

This is a dried milk food, said to be composed of pure, rich cows' milk combined with the extract of malted grains, and not to require the addition of milk, nor any cooking. The manufacturers claim that by their methods and apparatus the proteins are rendered very digestible and do not form large, irritating curds in the stomach.

The directions for preparing the food for an infant six months old are to dissolve 3 to 4 heaping teaspoonfuls in 1½ to 6 ounces of water.

TABLE No. 30.

	Horlick's Malted Milk.	*Woman's Milk.*
Water	86.29	88.51
Salts	0.55	0.34
Proteins	2.31	2.35
Fat	1.24	2.41
Carbohydrates	9.61	6.39

This product is very nearly soluble in water, as its principal constituents are the soluble carbohydrates—maltose, dextrine, and milk sugar. The drying process is said to be conducted very carefully in a vacuum, and hence the solubility and digestibility of the product, it is claimed, are not lessened.

The proteins are about the same as in woman's milk, but the fat is about three-fifths and the carbohydrates are about five-thirds as much as in woman's milk.

When cows' milk causes continued constipation, the substitution of a bottle containing hot water 8 ounces, in which 4 teaspoonfuls of malted milk are dissolved, is indicated. It acts as a corrective, as the maltose has a laxative effect.

HORLICK'S FOOD.

Horlick's food is prepared from barley, malt, and wheat flour, and is designed to be used in connection with cows' milk, as a modifier. It is free from starch or cane sugar, and is completely soluble.

When prepared with milk, as directed, it brings the carbohydrates in the form of maltose and dextrine to the proper standard, and at the same time acts upon the milk so that it is easily digested.

In some cases food prepared as above has a tendency to constipate. In such cases the substitution of malted milk for the first morning bottle will modify such constipation.

This method of modifying milk has been followed for years, by many of the medical profession, as a substitute for mother's milk or as an alternate with Horlick's malted milk.

This food is also indicated as a diet for dyspeptics, fever patients, and convalescents, as it is easily digested, palatable, and free from some of the objectionable features that pertain to the use of milk alone, as a diet.

CEREAL MILK.

Cereal milk is a malted dried-milk food. It is stated by its makers to be a complete food, cooked and ready for use with the simple addition water, and to be made from the purest Vermont dairy milk, the finest wheat gluten flour, the best barley malt, and milk-sugar.

Cereal milk in general appearance very much resembles the other malted dried milk foods, but it contains a much greater percentage of milk-sugar, showing that this substance is used in its manufacture, as claimed.

The directions for preparing it for use are to mix 1 teaspoonful of cereal milk in a teacupful of hot water for infants under three months of age or for a very delicate child.

Preparation for a child six months old:—

"To make 6 ounces Prepared Food, use 3½ rounding teaspoonfuls Cereal Milk Powder," as directed.

Composition when prepared:—

TABLE No. 31.

	Cereal Milk.	*Woman's Milk.*
Water	90.98	86.73
Total solids	9.02	13.26
Fats	0.38	4.13
Proteins	1.09	2.00
Inorganic salts	0.21	0.20
Carbohydrates	7.34	6.93

The reaction to litmus was neutral, or faintly acid. The food contains starch. No white of egg or cream was added, since neither *is definitely* prescribed. This fact may be taken into consideration when comparing the analysis with that of the other foods.

The total of soluble carbohydrates as above is practically the same as in woman's milk; the amount of proteins is less than one-half the amount in woman's milk, and about one-half is insoluble in water. The amount of fat is one-eleventh the amount in woman's milk. The small amount of fat indicates that the cereal extractives and milk-sugar make up the bulk of the solids of this food, and that a dilution of 1 part of good cows' milk with 11 parts of water would be the counterpart of the above mixture as to the amount of milk therein.

WAMPOLE'S MILK FOOD.

Wampole's milk food is a malted dried milk food. Its makers state that it is made from malted cereals, beef, and milk, and when mixed with warm water it is immediately ready for use; no other preparation necessary.

This dried milk food is very nearly soluble in water, owing to the soluble carbohydrates being so large a constituent. A little less than one-half of the proteins is insoluble in water. A small amount of beef extract has been combined with the cereal extractives and dried milk.

To prepare it for an infant 6 months to 1 year of age, the directions are to dissolve 4 to 6 teaspoonfuls of the food in 6 ounces of hot water. Composition when prepared by dissolving 6 teaspoonfuls in 6 ounces of water:—

TABLE No. 32.

	Wampole's Milk-food.	*Woman's Milk.*
Water	88.59	88.51
Salts	0.46	0.34
Proteins	1.58	2.35
Fat	0.73	2.41
Maltose, dextrin, etc.	7.65	
Milk-sugar	0.99	6.39
	Reaction alkaline.	Reaction alkaline.

Compared with woman's milk, it is seen that the carbohydrates are considerably in excess, and the proteins and fat are deficient, the fat especially, it being less than one-third the amount in woman's milk.

One part of good cows' milk diluted with about 3½ parts of water would be analogous to the dilution of milk in Wampole's milk food prepared as above.

IMPERIAL GRANUM.

Imperial granum is a farinaceous food to be used as an adjunct to cows' milk.

Its makers state that it is a solid extract derived from very superior growths of wheat, nothing more. It appears to be made as claimed from wheaten flour and to be mainly composed of torrefied starch.

For an infant six months of age it is to be prepared by cooking 3½ teaspoonfuls of food in 21 ounces of water and 20 ounces of milk.

Composition when prepared as above:—

TABLE No. 33.

	Imperial Granum.[1]	*Woman's Milk.*
Water	91.53	88.51
Salts	0.34	0.34
Proteins	2.15	2.35
Fat	1.54	2.41
Starch	1.22	
Maltose, dextrin, etc.	0.58	
Milk-sugar	2.71	6.39
	Reaction alkaline.	Reaction alkaline.

The total of solids contained is one-quarter less than in woman's milk; the carbohydrates are nearly one-third less than the amount in woman's milk, and it should be observed that 1.22 per cent., or about one-fourth of them, consist of starch; there is only a sligh proteins, but a considerable deficiency in the amount of fat. By using more milk or milk and cream and less water than above employed the percentages of fat, proteins, and soluble carbohydrates would be increased.

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[1] According to Chittenden.

Its very large proportion of starch forms the principal objection to this food.

The presence of unconverted starch causes the thick condition of the mixture.

ESKAY'S ALBUMENIZED FOOD.[1]

This food is to be prepared with cows' milk. Its makers state, in recommending their product, that it contains the more easily digested cereals, combined with egg albumin.

Eskay's albumenized food consists largely (about 88 per cent.) of carbohydrates; the soluble carbohydrates, mostly milk-sugar, are about 50 per cent., and the insoluble carbohydrates, mostly starch, are a little less than 40 per cent. On account of this proportion of starchy matter in the dry food, it may be termed farinaceous. The makers, however, claim that in the process of manufacture the starch granules are almost entirely disintegrated, and when the food is prepared with milk according to directions the percentage is said to be not over 1½ to 2 per cent. An analysis of the dry food shows that it contains about 9 per cent. of proteid matter, but when prepared according to the six months' formula it analyzes about 2.55 per cent.

The fats as well as the proteins are almost entirely vegetable, with a small percentage of each derived from eggs. Excepting the egg, fat, and albumin, the preparation is produced from wheat, oats, and barley, and, while no proteolytic ferments are used in its manufacture, the insoluble carbohydrates are nevertheless partially converted into dextrin by a special process of heating, which ruptures the starch granules and converts a small amount of the starch.

The egg albumin is said to be first combined with sugar of milk in such a thorough manner that the particles are finely subdivided, and no firm, hard coagulum can therefore take place in the stomach. The particles retain their identity, and do not coalesce; so that in the finished preparation the egg albumin is suspended throughout the whole mixture in very fine particles, which are easily digested, because the gastric juice acts by contact, and, the smaller the particles, the greater the effect of the gastric juice. No claims are made by the manufacturers for its solubility, but for its ease of digestion and its nutritive value.

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[1] The chemical analyses of Eskay's food, Mellin's food, cereal milk, and malted milk here given were specially made for me by Professor Lafayette B. Mendel, at the Sheffield Laboratory of Physiological Chemistry, Yale University.

The directions for preparing it for an infant six months of age are to ke:—

Eskay's food	5 tablespoonfuls
Hot water	1 pint
Rich cows' milk	2 pints

As directed.

Composition when prepared as above:—

TABLE No. 34.

	Eskay's Food.	*Woman's Milk.*
Water	84.46	86.73
Total solids	15.54	13.26
Fats	3.07	4.13
Proteins	2.78	2.00
Inorganic salts	0.58	0.20
Carbohydrates	9.11	6.93

The reaction to litmus was amphoteric.

The food contains a noticeable quantity of starch, which is in the form f a thin paste, in which all the grains are ruptured by the process of preparation. The boiling was carried on for fifteen minutes in the sample analyzed.

Rich milk (4.85 per cent. of fat) was used as specifically directed.

MELLIN'S FOOD.

Mellin's food is a malted cereal. This food is stated by its makers to e a soluble dry extract from wheat and malt, for the modification of fresh ows' milk.

ANALYSIS.

Fat		.16
Proteins		10.35
Maltose	58.88	
Dextrins	20.69	
Soluble carbohydrates	——	79.57
Salts		4.30
Water		5.62
		100.00

The salts, 4.30 parts, consist of:—

Bicarbonate potassium	2.536
Phosphate potassium	.897
Phosphate calcium	.037
Phosphate magnesium	.213
Phosphate iron	.016
Chloride sodium	.097
Sulphate sodium	.131
Sulphate potassium	.383
	4.310

The carbohydrates therein are in the form of dextrin and maltose, and constitute about 80 per cent. of the food; the proteins amount to about 10 per cent. and are derived from the cereals. Mellin's food is almost completely soluble in water. It is especially noticeable that this food does not contain any starch.

Whole Milk Formula for Normal Infant, Six Months Old or Over.

Mellin's food	3½ level tablespoonfuls
Milk	12 ounces
Water	4 ounces

Analysis of Above Mixture:

Fat		2.67
Proteins milk	2.52	
Proteins cereal	.49	3.01
Carbohydrates (no starch)		7.12
Salts		.71
Water		86.49
		100.00
Calories per fluidounce	21	

The reaction to litmus was amphoteric. The food gave no reaction for starch. Milk having 4.25 per cent. of fat was used in this preparation.

In total solids this food differs but slightly from woman's milk, and in the various constituents its similitude to woman's milk is remarkably close. Of the carbohydrates the maltose and dextrin are a little less in amount than the milk sugar, and the total carbohydrates (7.12 per cent.) are greater than the amount in woman's milk.

One level table-spoonful of Mellin's food added to a 16-ounce mixture increases the percentage of

Proteins	0.14 per cent.
Carbohydrates	1.10 per cent.
Salts	0.06 per cent.

Mammala.

Mammala is claimed to be a milk from which a part of the cream has been removed, an additional proportion of milk sugar added, and then dried by the Hatmaker process, at a temperature of 280° F.

It is a white powder to be dissolved in hot water with no addition of sugar or lime water. It is a simple formula and one adapted for substitute feeding.

The absence of a live factor such as an enzyme would contraindicate the use of such food for a prolonged period. We must always bear in mind the possibility of the development of scurvy where an absence of fresh milk exists.

JUST'S FOOD.

ose, free	12.6 parts
ose, combined with dextrin as maltodextrin	15.5 parts
rin, with trace soluble starch	61.3 parts
minoids	1.1 parts
	0.1 part
	0.9 part
r	5.3 parts
lose	0.2 part
terminable (insoluble)	3.0 parts
	100.0 parts

mple was neutral in reaction; the sample was analyzed June as slightly acid, which suggests the process of manufac- n changed a little. The food has no diastasic action.

all amount of albuminoids, light color of the food, and the low nversion, particularly of the last sample analyzed, indicate very that no considerable quantity of malt or any entire cereal is manufacture. It is not hygroscopic—it can be exposed to air ong time without becoming sticky.

xamination, the above analysis indicates a close relation of Just's mercial glucose, although it contains no dextrose.

uct similar to Just's might be obtained from the glucose process ss were stopped early in the conversion before the starch was glucose; that is, when the conversion of the starch has pro- as far as dextrin and maltose; or it might be possible, during of making glucose, to draw off a portion in the earlier stages ss, and neutralize and clarify, and obtain a product similar to

r to get such a percentage, as is given in the analysis of dextrin , from a starch material by the action of *malt diastase,* it would to use *so much malt* that the amount of albuminoids contained uch larger than is shown by the analysis, and the product would led malt flavor and quite a marked color, and these Just's food

BENGER'S FOOD.

's food contains ferments which convert the proteins and starch preparation. It consists of cooked wheaten meal, to which is atural digestive ferment of the pancreas.

ANALYSIS BY CHAMBERS WATSON.

er	11.2
[illegible]	10.4

The preparation recommended is as follows:—

Mix 2 tablespoonfuls (about an ounce) of food and 4 tablespoonfuls of cold milk, then add 8 ounces of boiling milk and water; set aside in a warm place for fifteen minutes, then bring to the boil.

When mixed with warm milk as recommended, the carbohydrates are nearly all converted into soluble dextrin and sugar, and the proteins are also partially peptonized. This form of food is adapted for marasmic and atrophic infants where a predigested food is indicated temporarily.

Peptogenic Milk Powder.

This product is stated by its makers to be an article containing milk sugar and a digestive ferment capable of acting on casein, offered for the preparation of an artificial infant food. McGill states: "It is not, in the strict sense, a food. Its professed object is so to change the composition of cows' milk as to render this comparable to human milk. This it seeks to do by introducing milk sugar and small quantities of albuminoids." According to McGill's analysis, it is composed almost entirely of milk sugar (96.6 per cent.).

The following analysis is by Leeds, and is taken from a circular of the makers.

Composition of "humanized milk" prepared as directed, using 4 measures of peptogenic milk powder with 1½ pint of milk, ½ pint of water, and 4 tablespoonfuls of cream:—

Table No. 35.

	Humanized Milk.	*Woman's Milk.*
Water	86.20	88.51
Ash	0.30	0.34
Proteins	2.00	2.35
Fat	4.50	2.41
Milk-sugar	7.00	6.39
	Reaction alkaline.	Reaction alkaline.

Chittenden's analysis of this "humanized milk" is almost identical with the above.

The proteins of the cows' milk undergo a change in the peptonizing process, being converted chiefly into partial peptones, and in this form they cannot be said to resemble the proteins of woman's milk, which have not been acted upon by a proteolytic ferment.

The prolonged use of peptogenic powder may do harm. It should be used as a corrective for several weeks and gradually be replaced by a higher protein content. Excessive carbohydrate feeding will do harm; this caution applies as well to peptogenic powder.

LE No. 36.—*Summary Giving Comparison of the Foods Analyzed by Professor Mendel.*

	Cereal Milk.	Malted Milk.	Mellin's Milk.	Eskay's Milk.	Human Milk.
....	90.98	90.74	85.37	84.86	86.73
ids	9.02	9.26	14.63	15.54	13.26
....	0.38	0.63	3.16	3.07	4.13
ıs	1.09	1.65	3.03	2.78	2.00
iic salts..	0.21	0.36	0.70	0.58	0.20
ydrates .	7.34	6.62	7.74	9.11	6.93
to litmus	neutral	alkaline	amphoteric	amphoteric	

(The figures indicate percentages by weight.)

figures quoted for human milk are well-known averages; it would accurate to give figures indicating the healthy variations.

CHAPTER VII.

CONCENTRATED PREPARATIONS OF ALBUMIN.

AMONG the concentrated preparations of albumin on the market are:—

SOMATOSE.

Somatose, meat albumin, isolated artificially by chemical process. A remedy which has more the character of a pharmaceutical preparation of a stimulant tonic, rather than of a food. This is evident also in its cost. It is used extensively and with good results. It is advisable to be cautious with the same owing to the diarrhœal tendency. It should, therefore, not be given to very young infants.

Chemical analysis:—

Water	11.41	parts
Digestible albumin	41.21	parts
Peptone	27.12	parts
Other nitrogenous substances estimated by difference and assumed to consist of meat basis and extractives	14.51	parts
Ash	5.75	parts
	100.00	parts

Somatose is stated to be prepared from meat. It is a light-yellow powder, odorless, nearly tasteless, and readily and completely soluble in water. The solution has a slightly alkaline reaction.

The substance is a predigested, *nitrogenous food.*

It is probably made from animal substances, but we are unable to state from what materials or by what process the article is manufactured. Its contents of phosphoric acid and potassium are very much less than should be the case if it were prepared from muscular tissue, or meat in the usual sense of the term.

EUCASIN.

Eucasin is an ammoniated salt of casein. A soluble preparation of casein, obtained by chemical process. It contains phosphorus, 0.8 and 13.1 per cent. of nitrogen. It is well tolerated by older children, but does not prove very satisfactory in very young infants.

NUTROL.

Nutrol is the sodium compound of casein; also soluble.

TROPON.

Tropon is a mixture of animal and vegetable albumin. Obtained chiefly from buckwheat flour by dissolving with dilute caustic soda, precipitating with acid, and purifying with hydrogen peroxide. It was introduced by Finkler (*Berlin. klin. Wochen.*, 1897, Nos. 30, 33). Also sano-tropon, which is really a mixture of dextrinized barley flour with tropon. Sanatogen is very similar to the latter preparation, and consists of casein with glycero-phosphate of sodium, and 13 per cent. nitrogen.

PLASMON.

Plasmon is a preparation of casein, partly soluble. Obtained by chemical process, the use of carbonic acid and bicarbonate of soda. It is adapted for the strengthening of ordinary broths, but it must be distinctly remembered that all of these preparations are merely suggestions as "substitutes," and should never be thought of as suitable for constant feeding.

SOSON.

Soson is a new albuminous product resembling plasmon and tropon in nutritive qualities.

Other foods are *Sanose-Albumose* (*Schering*); *also Sanatogen, Eulactol, Protogen* (*Blum*), *and the Somatose Cream Mixture of the Elberfeld Farbenwerke.*

All of the above preparations have been used by the author in doses of ½ teaspoonful added to either barley soup, chicken broth, farina, or rice gruel.

When typhoid fever and such disorders tax the ability of the attending physician, owing to the rejection of food, then, and then only, should milk or its dilution be laid aside and the above foods given a trial. Valuable service has been frequently given by such standard preparations as panopepton, liquid peptonoids, and Mosquera's beef jelly where the gastric irritability prevents the regular administration of milk.

MOSQUERA'S BEEF MEAL.

This is a partially digested beef preparation, containing in addition to the proteins 13.06 per cent. of fat.

The analysis is:—

Water	6.68
Salts and inorganic substances	4.20
Fats	13.06
Insoluble proteins	47.61
Albumose	29.43

Taking the insoluble proteins, albumose and fats, together, 100 grams are equal to 435 calories, while the albumose alone represents 122 calories.

MOSQUERA'S BEEF JELLY.

This beef jelly contains 12.66 per cent. of albumose and 14.35 per cent. meat extractives. It represents therefore the stimulant as well as the nutrient qualities of beef.

A two-ounce jar is equal to 34 calories from the albumose, and if we were to take the meat extractives at the same ratio the total number of calories would be 94.

PANOPEPTON.

Panopepton represents the products of the peptic digestion of fresh lean beef, and of the proteolytic and amylolytic digestion of whole wheat: proteins in the form of albumose and peptone, carbohydrates as achroodextrins and maltose, and the natively associated soluble, savory, and stimulant mineral constituents. These soluble food constituents are sterilized, concentrated, and, after being duly proportioned, are redissolved in sherry wine.

Panopepton contains 20 per cent. of solids as follows:—

Soluble proteins	6 per cent.
Carbohydrates	13 per cent.
Ash	1 per cent.

It will be noted that the ratio of proteids and carbohydrates is as 1 to 2.16, which is best calculated for a proper nutritive balance. Harrington's analysis shows that it yields 17.99 per cent. of solid matter (including 0.97 per cent. of mineral matter) and 18.95 per cent. by volume of alcohol.

This is undoubtedly one of the best predigested foods of the class that contains both proteins and carbohydrates in their most available forms, and, from the data supplied by its manufacturers, it is evident that it is designed upon scientific principles to represent the varied constituents of a mixed diet, and that its preparation is carried out in a most perfect manner in all respects. The wine serves both as a stimulant and preservative, and the product has an agreeable taste and flavor. One hundred grams (about 3½ ounces) equal 77.5 calories.

It must not be taken for granted that because one chemist finds a very high percentage of alcohol in a standard preparation the same amount will be found by other chemists; for instance, the preparation of "liquid peptonoids," made by the Arlington Chemical Co., was sent to Dr. Ernst Lederle. This chemist found 17.59 per cent. alcohol by vol

TABLE No. 37.—*Chemical Analyses by Dr. Ernst J. Lederle and J. A. Deghuee, Ph.D.*

An interesting comparison as to the alcohol content can be made by studying analyses of the six nutritive tonics submitted for examination; they are:—

Nutritive Liquid Peptone...... (Parke, Davis & Co.)	23.49 per cent. alcohol by volume
Liquid Peptonoids .... (Arlington Chemical Co.)	17.59 per cent. alcohol by volume
Mulford's Pre-Digested Beef.... (H. K. Mulford & Co.)	19.39 per cent. alcohol by volume
Tonic Beef .... (Sharp & Dohme)	17.04 per cent. alcohol by volume
Trophonine .... (Reed & Carnrick)	18.98 per cent. alcohol by volume
Panopepton .... (Fairchild Bros. & Foster)	20.05 per cent. alcohol by volume

CHAPTER VIII.

ADDITIONAL NUTRIENTS AND STIMULANTS.

MEIGS'S FOOD.

MEIGS'S food consists of milk, cream, sugar, gelatine, and arrowroot, and is prepared as follows: Of Russian gelatine or isinglass, 20 grains, or a piece about two inches square, is soaked for a few minutes in cold water, and then boiled in half a pint of water for fifteen minutes, or until completely dissolved. One teaspoonful of arrowroot is mixed to a paste with cold water, and then added to water to make half a pint. This is now added to the gelatine solution, as is also, with constant stirring, the desired quantity of milk; just before removing from the fire the cream is added. The amount of milk and cream used should vary with the age of the infant. For an infant under one month, 4 ounces of milk and 1½ ounces of cream are to be used; for those older the milk is gradually increased to 16 ounces and the cream to 2 ounces.[1]

ZOOLAK.

The subjoined analysis of Dr. Dadirrian's zoolak was made by Edgar E. Wright, of Brooklyn, N. Y.

In every 100 parts of zoolak there are:—

Water	87.69
Protein substances	3.98
Fat	4.91
Milk sugar	2.03
Alcohol	0.07
Ash or mineral salts	0.78
Lactic acid	0.50
Carbon dioxide	0.04

This analysis shows that in the production of zoolak but little change is wrought in the percentage composition of the original cows' milk, *save what would naturally be produced* by the fermenting and peptonizing actions of the kefir ferment.

These fermentative changes—primary and secondary—consist in:—

1. The transmutation of a portion of the natural milk sugar into alcohol, lactic acid, and carbon dioxide.

2. The transmutation of a certain percentage of the protein substances into proteoses, and finally, perhaps, into true diffusible peptones.

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[1] Meigs and Pepper: "Diseases of Children," 1887.

This latter action, however, does not change the percentage presence of the protein bodies, as related to the total quantity of milk, but simply changes their chemical form.

Jurock's kefir-ferment-pastilles, recently introduced into our country, are a very rapid and practical method of making kumyss. These tablets will keep indefinitely and can therefore be utilized wherever fresh milk can be obtained. Its nutritive value has been well established, in adults as well as children.

THE NUTRITIVE VALUE OF EGGS.

It is commonly asserted that an egg contains as much food value as a half-pound of meat. This is not true. While there is an approximate equivalent between the albuminoids contained in both, the egg contains no carbohydrates. Very young infants do not digest eggs, and frequently gastric disturbances result from their use. This does not necessarily imply that the white of egg in its raw state should never be used as an adjunct to other forms of feeding, or as a temporary food when milk disagrees or when diarrhœal conditions, such as fermentative and catarrhal intestinal diseases, prohibit the use of milk.

LECITHIN.

Lecithin is a crystallizable fat of a peculiar nature containing nitrogen and phosphorus. It is unstable. When chemically treated by neurin and glycerine phosphoric acid can be isolated. Lecithin has also been found in the yolk of egg, in the egg of fish, etc. Hoppe-Seyler isolated this substance in 1870 from its constant association with phosphorized albumins, nucleo-albumin, and nucleo-protein. Lecithin is also found in the brain matter.

Free lecithin has been used clinically and physiologically by Danilewski in 1895. According to this physiologist, animals fed with lecithin grew more rapidly than those not fed on this substance. It is a reconstructive and is indicated in the treatment of all disorders of nutrition. My experience with lecithin has been limited to rachitis, tuberculosis, and cases in which atrophy due to malnutrition is found, such as result from pertussis. I am also using it in cases of sporadic cretinism.

A preparation of lecithin containing one grain of pure lecithin to the drachm is made by Fairchild Bros. & Foster, of New York City. A teaspoonful of this solution given three times a day before meals has given me very good results.

Lecithin of the Egg.—According to Coloumbe, lecithin exists in all the tissues, especially in those endowed with great vitality. From a therapeutic point of view it is not toxic, and it is assimilated as a whole in ordinary doses. Its action consists in increasing the number of red corpuscles; in increasing, in certain cases at least, hæmoglobin; in increasing urea and diminishing uric acid, and in stimulating the appetite. Its employment is indicated in anæmia, in all troubles of nutrition, in wasting diseases, and in neurasthenia. It may be administered hypodermically or by the mouth.

STEAK JUICE OR MEAT JUICE.

The juice of broiled steak possesses anti-scorbutic properties. I have referred to this in the chapter on scurvy. When dentition is delayed or when the bony structure is weak, as in rickets, steak juice should be freely given. It is best prepared fresh each day. For this purpose a meat press (see illustration) is convenient. When fresh steak juice cannot be obtained, then Valentine's meat juice can be tried. For the treatment of scurvy fresh meat juice must be used.

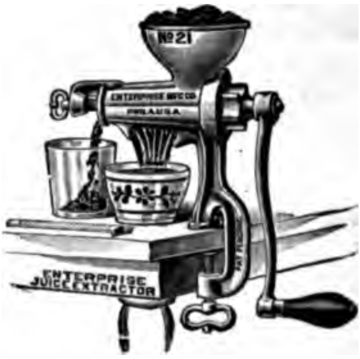

Fig. 55.

THE USE OF COCOA IN CHILDREN.

The value of cocoa as an infant food is underestimated, although a great many preparations of cocoa on the market are useless.

Indications.—When there is a tendency to diarrhœa and in general marasmic conditions, the nutritious effect of cocoa should be remembered. I frequently add one or two teaspoonfuls of cocoa to modify the curd in milk in the same manner as I prescribe some of the infant foods. During convalescence following the acute infectious diseases, especially diphtheria and scarlet fever, cocoa should be given. In pulmonary catarrh and in tuberculous manifestations, the use of cocoa is indicated. If milk is not well borne I frequently add one or two teaspoonfuls of cocoa properly sweetened to rice water.

H. Cohn,[1] in describing the chemical value of cocoa as nourishment, states his belief that it is overrated, and denies the value of the same. He ses his statement on the poor method of assimilation, owing to the large antity of fat which could be removed by chemical process. Cocoa also ntains 5.5 per cent. of tannic acid. Besides, the albuminoids are con-erted, by the process of roasting, into a very indigestible product. About he tannic acid, he says that it precipitates the digestive ferments, and unites ith the albuminoids into insoluble compounds, causing the constipating factor. According to his experiments, only one-half of the 16.6 per cent. of the albuminoids are absorbed, and, in order to give the human body enough cocoa to have a sufficient quantity of proteids, it would be necessary to feed at least somewhat over 2 pounds daily, provided cocoa alone was given for nourishment.

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[1] Zeitschrift für physiologische Chemie, xx, 1, 2.

A cocoa is found on the market in which a large percentage of oil has been extracted. This renders it more easily digested.[1]

CHOCOLATE.

Chocolate contains about 45 per cent. of cane-sugar, but no dextrose or lævulose. The remainder consists of cocoa powder. Invert sugar, or a mixture of glucose and albumin, is largely used in the preparation of uncrystallized sweets, such as the creamy matter in the interior of chocolate drops. The coloring of sweets is derived either from burnt sugar or from one of the aniline dyes, most commonly eosin. Cochineal is also a favorite colorer. It is interesting to know that these dyes may be excreted in the urine almost unchanged, and cases are on record where patients were supposed to be passing blood when they had merely been sucking red sweets. There is no reason to suppose, however, that such substances are harmful to life.[2] When there is a tendency to loose bowels, especially after the second summer, cocoa and chocolate should be added to the dietary. It is to be added to milk and thoroughly boiled. One cocoa feeding per day is usually enough. One teaspoonful of cocoa to a cup of milk, the latter to be thoroughly boiled, is the usual quantity used. Several formulæ for making chocolate will be found in the "Dietary."

ICE-CREAM AND WATER-ICES.

Ice-cream and water-ices are very grateful to a feverish child. When milk and cream are refused they will be greedily taken. These preparations will alleviate the pain on swallowing in the case of diphtheria. They contain considerable nourishment, but must be given in moderation. Nausea and vomiting may frequently be controlled by them.

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[1] This cocoa is manufactured by Croft & Allen, of Philadelphia. It is put up in glass jars.

[2] Hutchison, "Food and Dietetics," page 265.

THE USE OF COFFEE IN CHILDREN.[1]

Contraindications.—When giving coffee to children we must bear in mind that:—

First.—Coffee is in no sense a food, because it can neither build up the tissues nor provide them with potential energy.

Second.—Coffee perhaps acts the part of a lubricant to the machinery of the body, and exerts its stimulating influence by toning up and diminishing nervous fatigue in adults, and is not called for in children.

Third.—Coffee produces a disturbance of digestion due to a direct *interference* with the *chemical* part of the process, but in part also indirectly brought about by the nervous system; it also produces a dyspepsia which is of the *atonic* type, and a slow digestion, accompanied by flatulence, with a disturbance of the heart's action, so that it is decidedly contraindicated from a feeding standpoint.

Coffee is a cardiac stimulant, quickening the heart's action in small doses, and depressing it in large quantities.

It certainly disturbs the cardiac rhythm when taken in excessive doses by children. Such symptoms as muscular tremor, nervous anxiety, and dread of impending danger, as well as palpitation; cardiac intermissions, and an uncomfortable feeling referred to the cardiac region can be traced to coffee, according to Yeo; it is a diuretic, and increases the excretion of *urea;* it produces insomnia, nervousness, and fear; also, choreiform movements.

Caffeine has been known to produce paralysis in the lower animals, and might produce a similar effect if taken in large quantities by children. It retards digestion; hence it is contraindicated in children.

Owing to the great tendency to produce insomnia coffee should not be administered in the evening unless the heart's action demands it.

Indications.—As a cardiac stimulant, or whenever caffeine is indicated, hot coffee should be given in small doses, one or several teaspoonfuls, repeated every fifteen minutes, until its physiological effect is manifested. This can only be noted by studying the pulse. Great care should be exercised in administering large quantities of coffee to children, or very strong coffee, as in either instance it will produce a marked cardiac depression, and also a disturbance of the cardiac rhythm.

In the convalescence of typhoid fever or pneumonia in children, there is no better stimulant than coffee administered in small doses to which large quantities of milk or cream are added. This is an especially valuable drug in the great cardiac depression so frequently noted in the convalescence of diphtheria. (See chapter on "Diphtheria.") The coffee usually used consists of the following strength:—

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[1] Paper read by me before New York County Medical Association, December 17, 1900, "Acute and Chronic Coffee Poisoning." See Transactions.

Coffee	2 ounces
Water	1 pint

When an infusion of the above strength is made, Hutchison found that each teacupful of coffee contained:—

Caffeine	1.7 grains; and also
Tannic acid	3.24 grains

The latter in the form of gallo-tannic acid; so that judging from this analysis, coffee should be made much weaker (one ounce to a pint of water), and should be administered in teaspoonful doses.

For fuller details on "Physiological Effect of Coffee," read paper and discussion at the New York County Medical Association, 1900, by Leszynsky, Fischer, and others.

The Use of Alcohol in Children.

Alcohol in the form of wine or beer or whisky, in any and every form, is not only detrimental to the infantile organism, but will leave permanent injury if its use is prolonged. There is a decided difference between the continual use of alcohol as a food and its use when indicated as a medicine. Physicians know that whisky or wine, given to stimulate the weakened heart in the course of a septic pneumonia or diphtheria, is not only necessary, but frequently the only means of prolonging life. If a child has been given alcoholic drinks daily as an adjuvant to other articles of food, when it is required to stimulate the heart we must resort to enormous doses to procure an effect.

Alcohol should be regarded as a poison; therefore, as an irritant to the kidneys. The growing child does not assimilate alcohol. It interferes with the metabolism of fat and protein, and its use therefore should be limited to stimulating the heart when weakness exists during a septic process.

In a large children's clinic with which I have been associated it was very interesting to study the amount of alcohol given to young children, and I was surprised to find that more than 50 per cent. of all children from six months old and upward regularly received their sip of beer or drop of whisky "to strengthen their hearts." The author has frequently attended alcoholic dyspepsia due to prolonged use of beer and wine. This is most common among the tenement population, where the baby forms part of the family at the table, and necessarily partakes of almost everything eatable and drinkable along with its parents.

In the routine examination it is the duty of every physician to inquire into the habit of giving alcohol to children.

The Use of Tea in Children.

In my chapter on the use of coffee, I have already mentioned the deleterious effect of coffee on the growing infant or child; what has been said there regarding coffee applies equally strong to the use of tea. The nervous system when overstimulated in an infant is far more sensitive than the adult. The author has frequently noted that children suffered with sleeplessness and were very irritable, simply through the prolonged use of such stimulants as tea and coffee. A noteworthy point is that the appetite disappears when tea and coffee are given, and reappears when their use is interdicted.

It must not be supposed that tea is a poison, and there are times when physicians will find it necessary to use small quantities of tea to stimulate the body, as, for example, in that form of exhaustion following a protracted diarrhœa, as is usually the case in summer complaint, so-called cholera infantum.

PART IV.

ISEASES OF THE MOUTH, ŒSOPHAGUS, STOMACH, INTESTINES, AND RECTUM, AND DISEASES ASSOCIATED WITH IMPROPER NUTRITION

CHAPTER I.

DISEASES OF THE MOUTH.

STOMATITIS.

An infection existing on the tonsils or in the pharynx can spread to the mouth. Food, especially milk, is sometimes the means of directly conveying poison; this is especially true when milk contains pathogenic bacteria. As I have frequently stated that syphilis and rickets undermine the system, so also we find these conditions frequently as predisposing causes. The mouth is particularly liable to local infection. The slightest traumatism by diseased teeth, *especially in acute cases,* can produce local irritation. Non-pathogenic bacteria are always present in the buccal cavity under normal conditions.

"The glands of the mouth being excretory frequently produce inflammatory conditions by virtue of systemic poison excreted by them which may produce local lesions." One of the best writers on this subject is Forchheimer, whose classification I have adopted: I. Stomatitis Catarrhalis. II. Stomatitis Aphthosa. III. Stomatitis Mycosa. IV. Stomatitis Ulcerosa. V. Stomatitis Gangrenosa. VI. Stomatitis Crouposa; Stomatitis Diphtheritica. VII. Stomatitis Syphilitica.

STOMATITIS CATARRHALIS.

Simple stomatitis may be confined to a local area or it may be general. hen the mucous membrane is irritated by severe rubbing, as during mouth eaning, this condition frequently follows. Dentition does not produce omatitis. This catarrhal form is usually one of the earliest manifestaons of acute infectious diseases. Great stress is laid on this condition a diagnostic point in measles prior to or associated with the enanthem the buccal mucous membrane. When a small area is affected, a local use, such as a diseased or sharp tooth, or some mechanical cause, must be oked for.

Symptoms.—The usual symptoms of pain, hyperæmia, and sw are noted. The lining of the mouth is puffed and hyperæmic. The mu membrane is covered with small, round prominences due to the swelling the muciparous follicles. When the ducts of the latter become closed t glands dilate and there are produced cysts, the contents of which are cle viscid mucus. We also find slight epithelial abrasions, sometimes leadi to the production of a deeper process; at all events important in that th may become the seat of infection. The lymphatics are usually involv and they serve as a guide to the intensity of the inflammation. Cases on record where the temperature reached 104° F. in the rectum, but th are rarities.

The prognosis is invariably good. Unless some chronic disease seat of this trouble there are rarely any disagreeable after-effects.

Treatment.—The treatment consists in cleanliness. Remove th if possible. Remove mechanical irritants, such as diseased or sharp teeth. Boric acid, 1 per cent. solution, or sulphocarbolate of zinc or carbolate of soda, 1 grain to the ounce, are valuable local astringents times nitrate of silver (2 grains to the ounce) will act well when ap locally. Forchheimer recommends the application of silver nitrate w there is loss of epithelium. Cysts should be opened and their walls terized when necessary. My best results are obtained by the use of arg 5 to 10 per cent. solution.

STOMATITIS APHTHOSA.

This condition is not follicular and has nothing to do with the arous follicles, as it is found in places where there are none.

It consists in a hyperæmia of the mucous membrane of the associated with superficial ulcers.

Causes.– There seems to be a decided reason for believing that t disease is of microbic origin. Aphthous ulcerations have been seen children partaking of milk from cows that suffered with foot and mo disease. Demme[1] reports a case of twins fed on goat's milk, the goat hav foot and mouth disease. The milk was fed fresh and raw. One of twins, the boy, had a severe aphthous condition of the entire mouth a throat, and died after seven days of illness. The other, a girl, was a sick with aphthous sore mouth, but recovered after five days' illness.

Robinson[2] reports a severe epidemic of aphthæ acquired from f and mouth disease in Devonshire. Two hundred and five persons w affected in one week. Two children died, the aphthous condition hav extended to the respiratory tract.

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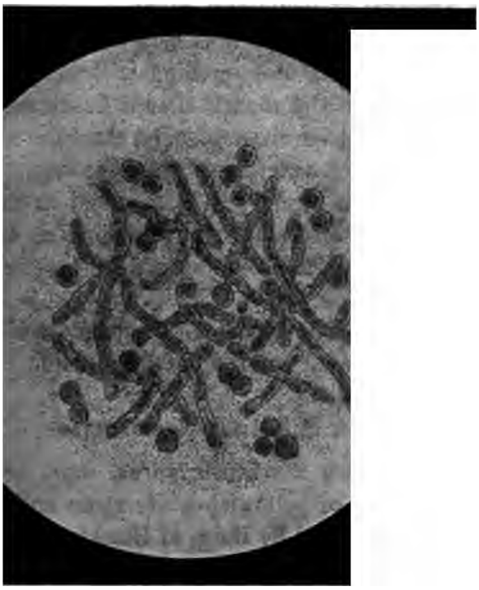
[1] Vienna Medical Journal, vol. vi, 1883.

[2] London Practitioner for 1884.

, of Berlin, has also reported cases of foot and mouth disease and lts. Bohn states that the disease is most common between the l thirteenth months of life. Therefore, teething has something to he eruption. Siegel studied an epidemic of foot and mouth dis- lting in aphthous stomatitis in children. An ovoid bacillus 0.5 μ found in all cases. We can assume that foot and mouth disease is the etiological factor of stomatitis aphthosa in the human being.

ptoms.—White or yellowish-white epithelial spots are seen singly ups, surrounded by an areola and developing anywhere in the mouth. In many cases they extend into the pharynx, and Forchheimer believes into the larynx. This disease is frequently associated with acute gastric catarrh, constipation, and with general toxæmic conditions. The eruption may be preceded by pain in the throat, fever, enlargement of the lymphatics, and a general train of nervous symptoms so common in children.



6.—A Case of Sprue (Thrush) due to Faulty
the Mouth. Note Threads (Mycelium) and
Bodies (Spores). (After Jagic, Klinische Mi-

The diagnosis, therefore, will be difficult until the eruption appears. The spots frequently are

Successive crops may come and go.

tment.—The treatment consists in giving laxatives such as rhu- magnesia, or inf. senna comp. The diet must be regulated. If has been given solids they should be excluded. The discontin- milk is frequently beneficial.

lly, a weak solution of listerine as an antiseptic can be used. If is old enough it should rinse its mouth and gargle its throat with Nitrate of silver, 10 grains to the ounce, or in some instances f chloride of iron, has served me very well. The glycerite of car- applied with absorbent cotton is frequently efficacious.

Bednar's Aphthæ.

The small, yellowish-white, ulcerative patches which appear on one or both sides of the hard palate in the new-born are known as Bednar's aphthæ. They may be mistaken for the ulcers produced by the breaking down of milia or retention cysts, or for that condition described by Epstein in which there are congenital defects in the mucous membrane filled up with epithelial detritus (Forchheimer). They are usually the result of violence in cleaning the mouth. Frequently an improperly shaped nipple will cause this condition by pressing on the palate.

Dr. A. Jacobi, in the Archives of Pediatrics, says:—

"Do not be so *fearfully* clean. Perhaps it is best to leave the infant's mouth alone with the exception of the first washing with sterilized water immediately after birth. Otherwise the mouth should be cleaned by the baby's feeding and by the practice I have recommended these dozen of years—viz.: to give a teaspoonful or two of water after every feeding. That will wash down all remnants of food that might get decomposed in the mouth. These 'aphthæ' will get well when left alone; but as long as there is a sore surface there is a possibility of microbic invasion; for that reason alone they should be treated."

The affected area should be gently wiped with cotton wound around the finger, and dipped into a saturated solution of boric acid.

Stomatitis Mycosa, or Parasitic Stomatitis.

This disease is commonly known as thrush, sprue, soor, or muguet. It occurs in the mouth in the form of yellowish-white spots and is due to a microbe. A fungus was first discovered by Berg, of Stockholm, and called *oidium albicans* by Robbin. Forchheimer states that the fungus is found in two forms, the yeast form and the globulofilimentous form (frequently called mycelium). "There is no ascospore, therefore. Roux and Linoissier state that the fungus is not a saccharomyces. The chlamydospore has, however, not been satisfactorily worked out."

Propagation goes on in three ways: by filaments produced from conidia, by isolated conidia, and by spores.

Symptoms.—Local symptoms vary with the severity of this condition. At times no symptoms precede the appearance of these small spots. The spots are grayish white or creamy in color. They may be elevated above the surface of the mucous membrane. They are not confined to the gums, but appear frequently on the lips, tonsils, pharynx, and cheeks. There is a fetid breath due to the inflamed gums. Children that are old enough to complain do not describe any subjective symptoms. The lymphatic glands are always enlarged and do not suppurate. When suppuration takes place it will follow after the disease in the mouth has disappeared.

Treatment.—*Prophylactic treatment* of the mouth, consisting in the ual hygienic measures, can prevent this condition. Aseptic details must rigidly enforced in the nursing bottles and nipples when this disease is resent.

Treatment consists in the application of a 1 per cent. boric acid solution as a mouth cleanser, followed by the local application of a 3 per cent. chlorate of potassium solution. Where a specific cause exists, such as carious teeth or dead bone, the same should be removed before attempting to cure this condition.

CROUPOUS STOMATITIS, OR DIPHTHERITIC STOMATITIS.

This rare condition is occasionally met with in children. The prognosis and treatment should be considered just the same as though we were dealing with diphtheria in the throat. The following interesting case was sent to my clinic at the New York Post-Graduate Medical School in 1894:—

The child was seven months old, female, breast-fed, had always been in good health. No family history of tuberculosis, lues, rheumatism, or epilepsy. The child was vaccinated when about six months old, had had no previous illness excepting slight irritability about the time of the eruption of the first tooth. It has two teeth, incisors, lower jaw. General appearance not anæmic or rachitic, has well-nourished muscles and a fair amount of fat. Skin has a healthy appearance. Four other children in same family; three apparently healthy; the fourth is convalescing from an attack of "sore mouth." The infant has been gaining weight regularly since birth. It now weighs 15 pounds and 8 ounces.

An examination of the infant showed: Two large patches—one on the tip of the tongue; the other on the soft palate—which were irregular in outline, yellowish-green in appearance. Temperature in the rectum 100⅕° F., at 11 A.M.; pulse, 142; respiration, 39. Cervical glands considerably enlarged on both sides. No history of existing infectious disease in the same locality. The diagnosis of stomatitis ulcerosa was made and a question mark (?) entered after the same. Diphtheria was suspected. The mother was cautioned in regard to the other children, and the ne carefully watched. I again saw the case two days later and found the child a worse condition. The temperature in the rectum at 4 P.M. was 102⅕° F.; lse, 160; small, feeble, but quite regular. The examination of the mouth showed extension of the inflammatory condition of the patches, now involving the uvula d left tonsil. The pharynx showed an abnormal redness, but no membrane was ible.

The mother's breast was painful on palpation. The glands were distended th milk, and the axillary glands enlarged and tender on palpation. The mother nplained of aching in her limbs—a "tired feeling," as she called it—and had lls, alternating with fever. Her temperature was 99⅘° F. in the mouth. re were membranous patches around one of her nipples. This resembled a cked nipple. While examining the infant's mouth I saw what appeared to be mbrane. A similar condition was found around the nipple. I inoculated two r-agar tubes and placed them in the thermostat. After twelve hours, small nies of both streptococci and bacilli could be seen. On staining with Loeffler's alkaline methylene blue, showed distinct semblance to Klebs-Loeffler bacilli. A culture was made from the patch in the mouth, from the uvula, and also from the pharynx. The tube inoculated with the uvula patch and the one from the tongue contained, in almost pure culture, the characteristic Klebs-Loeffler bacilli. The usual method of treatment and active stimulation was given. Concentrated liquid diet (rectal feeding) was given when the infant refused the breast. An important question suggested itself: Shall we wean the infant? or, mother and infant having the same disease, could the infant be nursed on the healthy breast? It will be remembered that only one nipple was diseased. I resolved to give the infant the milk of the healthy breast and to guard against another sore nipple by nursing through a glass nipple shield. The milk in the diseased, or left, breast was drawn out with a breast-pump and thrown away.

Three weeks after the apparent cure of the mother's breast and also after the last visible membrane from the infant's throat disappeared, the mother complained that she slept with one eye open. On examination, I found a distinct facial paralysis on the right side. The *diagnosis* was strengthened by the sequel in the case. To sum up: I believe the infant, while having diphtheria, infected its mother through the fissure of the breast during the act of nursing. Considering the physiology of nursing, we know the rôle played by the tongue, and, as the disease was first manifested thereon, it can be readily seen how this might have been inoculated from tongue to the breast through its cracked nipple.

SYPHILITIC STOMATITIS.

Primary infection in syphilis is by no means rare. It usually occurs by transmission from a wet-nurse suffering with syphilis.

A case of this kind was seen by me in an infant nine months old. This infant was accidentally infected by a woman who nursed it during the mother's illness. She had erosions (cracked nipples) and did not know that she suffered with syphilis. Her own child died of distinct syphilis, having had pemphigus and the general cachexia so common in *luetic* conditions. This case was given small doses of calomel, and given a bichloride bath (see chapter on "Syphilis") and showed signs of improvement almost immediately. In the mouth of this child the ordinary mucous patches were found.

Treatment is that of syphilis. (See chapter on "Syphilis.")

NOMA (STOMATITIS GANGRENOSA; CANCRUM ORIS[1]).

This disease is frequently called noma, and sometimes cancrum oris. It is characterized by a gangrenous destructive process located on the cheek. Although the left cheek is the favorite site of the disease, it can frequently be found on both cheeks. The writer has met with children suffering from this disease on the right cheek. Girls are more liable to noma than boys. It is usually secondary to some contagious disease, and has been known to follow typhoid fever, smallpox, scarlet fever, measles, pertussis, and allied infectious disorders. We must, therefore, assume that the infectious diseases are predisposing factors in the development of this disease.

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[1] Extracted from the American Journal of the Medical Sciences, April, 1902.

The process usually commences on the gums or the inner portion of e cheek, and spreads very rapidly to the adjacent tissues. Thus it is hat it will destroy the inner portion of the cheek and spread to the outside, ausing similar destruction to the healthy tissues.

Bacteriology.—Perthes[1] in 1899 found that noma is due to a fungus-like growth belonging to the streptothrix group. At the border line between the gangrenous ulcer and normal tissue he found a thick, branching network of ine, fusiform threads—mycelium. From this mycelium single, fine rods and spirilla extend into the normal tissue, surround the cells, and cause their death. Krahn believes that the growth described by Perthes consists of two organisms—the spirillum sputigenum and spirochete dentium. The majority of observers agree with Perthes and Seiffert. The same bacteriological picture was described in noma of other parts of the body by Matzenauer. Perthes prepared his specimens for examination by treating the teased tissue or section from the edge of the ulcer—removed *post mortem*—with dilute carbol-fuchsin for twenty-four hours and then briefly washing with alcohol. Weaver and Tunnicliff[2] demonstrated that this streptothrix is decolorized by Gram's method. They obtained the best staining reactions by dropping a 10 per cent. saturated solution of alcoholic gentian violet in 5 per cent. phenol on the section (that had been embedded in paraffin, treated with xylol, followed by absolute alcohol) for five minutes, clearing with aniline oil, washing with xylol, and mounting in balsam. A complete bibliography of noma is given by Weaver and Tunnicliff.[3]

Symptoms.—The cheek will appear swollen, hard, and œdematous to the touch, the œdema causing such swelling that frequently the eye of the affected side cannot be opened. There is a decided fetor to the breath, which is often the first symptom noticed. The disease spreads very rapidly from the gums to the cheek. Frequently the teeth will loosen and fall out. The latter is frequently caused by the previous administration of mercury. Thus it is that great care should be used in giving mercury to children.

That it is not an inflammatory disease can be seen by the fact that the temperature is rarely or never above normal. The swelling can best be felt by opening the mouth and grasping the cheek between the thumb and forefinger. The skin over the induration is frequently mottled with purple spots resembling ecchymoses. The appetite is diminished, partly due to the fear of pain caused by chewing.

Some authorities state that children so affected have diarrhœa. Forchheimer believes that hæmorrhages rarely occur, owing to the blood-vessels being filled with thrombi.

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[1] Arch. für klin. Chir., 1899, lix.

[2] Journal of Infectious Diseases. 1907.

[3] Journal of Infectious Diseases, Jan., 1907.

When this gangrenous mass discharges we will find a dirty, fetid saliva, with threads of broken-down tissue. The cervical glands in the immediate vicinity are always found enlarged. In severe cases it is not rare to have the parts ulcerate and even perforate the cheek after several days. When the disease extends inward, not only does periostitis occur, but necrosis of the jaw-bone has been noted. When the disease is as malignant as has just been described, then subnormal temperature, possibly delirium, may complicate the condition. The disease may extend to the lungs, causing a gangrenous infiltration. When the gangrene affects the genitals in girls, then a serious prognosis must be given.

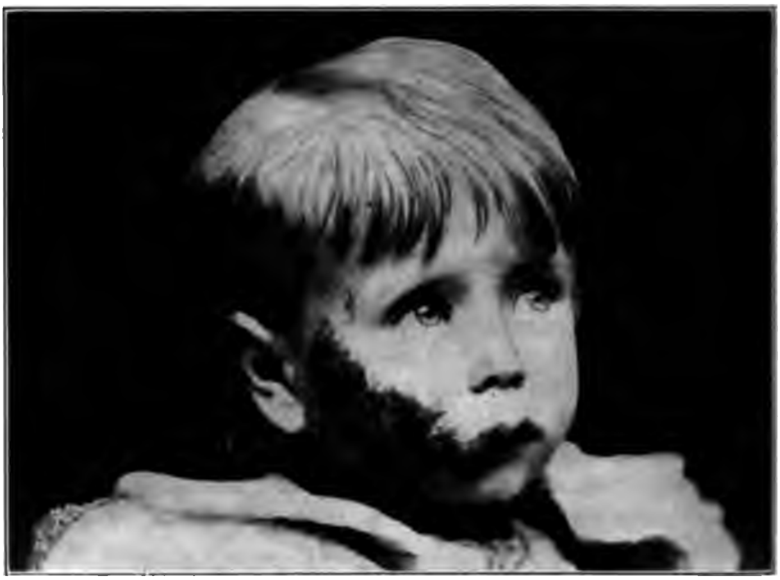


Fig. 57.—Case of Stomatitis Gangrenosa (Noma) Following Scarlet Fever. The picture shows the unilateral gangrenous condition involving the right cheek and the lips. Case recovered. Clinical history given in the text. (Original.)

The following cases will illustrate the condition described: —

Elsie G., aged 7 years, was seen by me in January, 1900. The child had complained of severe headache for three or four days, and was very feverish. Her mother became alarmed because of persistent vomiting. She stated that the child vomited at least six times in twenty-four hours. She complained of feeling fatigued and had pains in her arms and legs.

The child was nursed for ten months, and was a strong baby up to this time. dentition commenced at the seventh month; the child's muscles and bones were well developed; there were no evidences of rickets; the first two years were passed any sickness except an occasional attack of constipation. The child walked ıd of the first year and commenced talking at its fourteenth month. Twenty milk teeth"—appeared at the end of two years. The child had measles in its ar, which left a bronchitis; the mother states that this same cough recurs nter. The child had had whooping-cough, lasting four months, which was ıt that it had epistaxis almost every day for one month. This whooping- as so severe that, in addition to the nose-bleed, the child vomited almost usly. From loss of sleep, in addition to the above-named symptoms, the mmenced to emaciate. This was at the end of her fifth year.

ıen the child was undressed an eruption was found all over the body, which of typical scarlet fever. The throat was filled with evidences of pseudo- ous patches, which were distinctly scarlatinal in character. The tempera- 103.4° F., taken in the rectum; pulse, 128; respiration, 22. The child to bed and an expectant plan of treatment ordered, in addition to a very [illegible] diet consisting of soup, milk, buttermilk, broth. Nothing else was solids were given. For the thirst I ordered orange juice and apple [illegible] doses (wine-glasses) of citrate of magnesia were given for their laxa- [illegible] effects.

[illegible] sounds were very feeble, and a loud, blowing, hæmic murmur, which [illegible] to the anæmic condition, was audible. Iron was given in the form of iodide of iron; hypophosphites were also administered as restoratives. [illegible] lasted in all until April, a period of almost three months from the child's first illness. About this time she complained of pain in the gums [illegible] while chewing. Later, the foul breath attracted attention. At first [illegible] was attributed to the teeth, but a dentist who saw the child found the gums healthy. The ulceration, which had now become quite marked, from a silver dollar, spread with remarkable rapidity. Its color was that of a [illegible] gray, and had purpuric spots scattered around the edges of this resembling subcutaneous hæmorrhages. On examining it considerable was very foul smelling, exuded on pressure. Antiseptic lotion, consisting r cent. peroxide of hydrogen diluted with water, was ordered as a mouth he child was told to rinse the mouth every half-hour, especially after eating. grene extended to the outside of the cheek, involving, as can be seen by the ion, almost the whole cheek.

e streptothrix is usually present in the pregangrenous stage and it is this stage that the best therapeutic results are attained. As a rule, ase appears in epidemic form. In diphtheria, scarlet fever, and espe- measles oral hygiene must be instituted to prevent stomatitis, and ly ulcerative stomatitis. The latter is frequently a soil for the de- ent of noma and hence every case of stomatitis should receive active nt to prevent gangrene.

e following case was seen by me at the Willard Parker Hospital dur- service in April, 1913:—

ild C., 3 years old, was admitted with a moderately severe type of scarlet Later a complication of noma developed, and this was the reason for the of 0.2 neosalvarsan. Within three days after the injection a slight im- nt was noted, which continued steadily until the case recovered, in all ten m day of first injection. The noma involved the pharynx, tonsils, and soft

When fetor of the breath exists, a strong solution of permanganate potassium as a gargle or spray every two hours will deodorize. Internall tincture of iron as a restorative. The insufflation of a small quantity neosalvarsan used locally once a day is advised. If fever exists, and toxæmi complicates, an intravenous injection of 0.2 neosalvarsan dissolved in 4 c.c. of sterile water and injected into the jugular vein has shown marke improvement in a number of my cases.

EPITHELIAL DESQUAMATION (GEOGRAPHICAL TONGUE).

A very common condition consists of epithelial desquamation of the tongue, giving rise to irregular, round or crescent-shaped patches. The borders of these patches are surrounded by a thickish, grayish margin. The center has a glazed appearance. From the irregular outline resembling a map the name of geographical tongue originates.

There are usually two or more of these red patches seen at one time. They last weeks and months. I have met these cases among the poorest hygienic surroundings and have seen the same condition among the wealthy. Malnutrition seems to be associated in all my cases. I have frequently seen cases of this kind among the children suffering with diphtheria at the Willard Parker Hospital, especially during convalescence. The following case illustrates this condition:—

Minnie H. Fourteen months old. Has been in delicate health since birth. Although breast-fed, has always been constipated and suffered with gastritis, and vomiting occasionally.

She is very anæmic. Can neither stand, walk, nor talk. Dentition has been delayed; there is no sign of teeth. The tongue shows four large, irregular shaped patches and two smaller ones in the center. They appear as though a coated tongue had irregular patches of red, and shining flesh interspersed. Diagnosis, rickets and geographical tongue.

Treatment.—Increase the proteins and fats to stimulate nutrition. Cleanse the tongue with boric or tannic acid solution. Most authors advise no treatment.

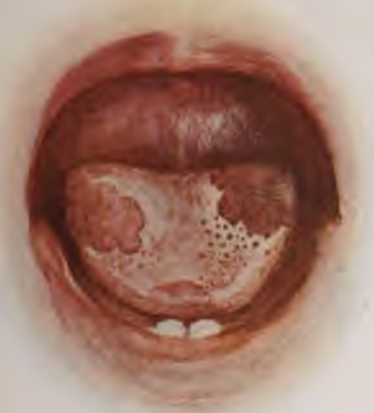
CONGENITAL HYPERTROPHY OF THE TONGUE.

A thickened, swollen tongue is always seen in sporadic cretinism. (See chapter on "Cretinism.") The specific thyroid treatment will usually modify this enlargement. When diseased lymphatics exist we may have a lymphangioma. Such conditions are rare, and if present require surgical treatment.

BIFID TONGUE.

Brothers reported a case of this kind to the New York Pathologica Society. The child was one month old, had a cleft tongue and a fissure o the soft palate.

PLATE X



Geographical Tongue, or Epithelial Desquamation.
(Original.)

BIFID UVULA.

This condition is occasionally seen. I have seen bifid uvula several s without cleft palate. Some authors report the co-existence of bifid a with cleft palate. It requires no treatment.

GLOSSITIS.

An inflammation of the tongue is very rare in children. Some authors e that it is due to traumatism, such as biting the tongue in an epileptic or a ragged, sharp tooth may infect the tongue and cause inflammation. r irritation, such as caustic acids or alkalies, may cause inflammation. The following case occurred in my private practice:—

A child 1 year old was bottle-fed, and suffered with severe constipation. He backward in development, had no teeth, could neither walk nor talk. Several lts in the family had influenza and the child was exposed and infected. The r reached 104° F. There was anorexia, cough, and running of the nose. The gue was thickened and inflamed and protruded from the mouth. He refused to any food and seemed relieved when a piece of ice was placed on the tongue. cream was ordered to nourish and cool at the same time. Rectal suppositories taining aconite, 1 minim, and sodium salicylate, 3 grains, were ordered every two rs. Under this treatment, aided by ice applied on the tongue and an ice collar the neck, the swelling of the tongue disappeared in about four days.

RANULA.

A swelling in the floor of the mouth, located on either side of the num, is frequently met with in children. It is a cyst varying in size, is due to an occlusion of the duct leading into the mouth from the lingual gland.

Character.—It may be simple or multilocular. It may be of such protions as to interfere with proper nutrition.

Symptoms.—The symptoms are those of a mechanical obstruction of on-inflammatory character. It is painless, soft, fluctuating, and cons mucus. The color of the growth is the same as that of the adjacent s.

Treatment.—An incision should be made to evacuate the contents of sac. The interior of the sac should be cauterized with iodine or nitrate ilver. In some instances the Paquelin cautery may be required.

ALVEOLAR ABSCESS.

When there is defective hygiene in the mouth and the teeth are not perly cleaned, caries of the teeth results. The carious condition frently sets up an inflammation, and pyogenic bacteria, gaining entrance, se abscess formation at the root of the tooth.

Symptoms.—The symptoms are pain, swelling, fever, interference wi feeding, foul breath, and general constitutional disturbances. The di nosis can be made by the presence of fluctuation in the mouth, by t swollen face, mouth, and jaw.

Treatment.—Locally, warm (dry) chamomile bag or warm (mois flaxseed poultices will have a soothing effect, used externally over the swe ing. Rinsing the mouth with warm chamomile tea to which a few dro of listerine have been added is grateful. Painting the gums with equal par of tincture of iodine and tincture of opium every hour will relieve pai If fluctuation is detected an incision should be made into the gums on th inner surface, and the pus evacuated. If this condition is neglected th periosteum of the jaw may be involved and the pus will burrow and evacua itself spontaneously, leaving a disagreeable fistula. Cases have been reporte where neglect of this condition has resulted in necrosis of the jaw.

ANGINA LUDOVICI.

Angina Ludovici is an inflammation of the cellular tissue of the floo of the mouth and neck. It is probably a form of actinomycosis. Th swelling is most marked below the jaw of one side. The symptoms ar very intense and both local and general. There are general septic sympto from the outset. With the swelling there are œdema and board-like indur tion. Redness and the rapid formation of an abscess occur rarely. Tl throat is not affected. Death takes place from reflex suffocation or coma.

CHAPTER II.

DISEASES OF THE ŒSOPHAGUS.

ACUTE ŒSOPHAGITIS.

inflammation may extend from the pharynx into the œsophagus.
ıch conditions arise the symptoms of pain on swallowing are asso-
vith fever. The treatment consists in giving bland food, milk,
ınd alkaline waters or water containing bicarbonate of soda.

CROUPOUS OR DIPHTHERITIC ŒSOPHAGITIS.

ɔhtheria can invade the œsophagus as well as it can spread to the
Some authors describe croupous inflammatory patches in the
ʒus. I have seen diphtheria of the œsophagus and also a diph-
patch post-mortem in the stomach of this same case. Such a con-
s invariably serious and recovery is rare. *The treatment of diph-*
ffecting the œsophagus is the same as that described in the chapter
ıhtheria." When dysphagia occurs and there is an interference with
ion, rectal feeding may be demanded to save life.
severe pain exists morphine or codeine in suitable doses. Nau-
vomiting can best be controlled by giving large doses of chloral. If
ıhageal stricture remains, then surgical treatment will be required,
h the reader is referred to modern text-books on surgery.

RETRO-ŒSOPHAGEAL ABSCESS.

is condition may follow measles, scarlet fever, or diphtheria; in fact,
ɪe associated with any infectious disease. As a rule, this disease con-
a breaking down of the lymph glands ending in suppuration. In
ɜeen by me the streptococcus was found. This condition is also
tly associated with tubercular conditions. The following case will
e the type most frequently met with:—

ras called in consultation with Dr. S. Brothers to see a child 3 years old
following history:—
ɪre was fever, an irritant cough, stertorous breathing, and evidence of
on pointing to the larynx. The neck was swollen and the glands enlarged.
ɔerature was 102° F.; pulse, 130; respiration, 36. At first the case resem-
of laryngeal stenosis as is usually found in diphtheria. The dyspnœa was
ɜd that intubation was suggested. The symptoms of dyspnœa continued,

and an incision was made into the posterior pharyngeal wall. The abscess cavity extended into the œsophagus. Caries of the dorsal vertebræ was associated with this condition. The child died from inanition. The tubercular process was evidently responsible for the abscess, which consisted of pus and large curded masses. The diagnosis was made after a careful study of the case. It is not an easy matter to diagnose this condition, as it is absolutely impossible, in some cases, to reach the abscess cavity by a digital examination of the pharynx.

In the case above reported the dyspnœa was very alarming. The literature records cases of spontaneous evacuation of the abscess into the œsophagus resulting in recovery, but usually these cases end fatally. The treatment is surgical, and tuberculosis, if present, requires the usual form of treatment. (See chapter on "Tuberculosis.")

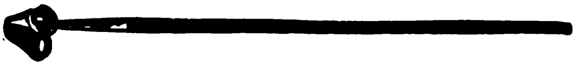


Fig. 58.—Hinged Bucket.

Foreign Bodies in the Œsophagus.

I have frequently been consulted regarding the removal of buttons, coins, etc., which were swallowed. The habit of children to put everything into the mouth should be remembered when buying toys.

The best method of extracting foreign bodies in the œsophagus is by means of the hinged bucket; also known as the "coin catcher."

CHAPTER III.

DISEASES OF THE STOMACH.

Acute Gastric Catarrh (Dyspepsia; Gastritis).

One of the most frequent diseases met with in infants or young chil-ren is dyspepsia. This is due to improper feeding of both quality and uantity of the food. Nursing children are very often seen suffering with his disease, especially among the tenement population. That poor hygiene as some bearing on the development of this disease is certain.

The largest number of cases are seen with bottle-fed babies. Errors in feeding, particularly over-feeding, and giving the infant the bottle whenever it cries, must be looked upon as a means of aggravating and exciting gastritis, if not being the real cause of the dyspepsia.

Pathology.—The mucous membrane of the stomach is always swollen and thickened. Occasionally erosions and hæmorrhages are found. The tissue beneath the mucous membrane, the submucosa, will be found œdematous. The interstitial tissue is infiltrated with leucocytes, and the differentiation between the parietal and principal cells cannot be clearly outlined. All the cells appear cloudy and granular and partially separated from the membrana propria of the gland. There is an abundance of the mucous cells in the pyloric region, and this increase extends deeply into the ducts of the glands.

In older children the origin of the trouble can easily be traced. Over-eating, especially cakes and pies and puddings; too rapid chewing and swallowing of unmasticated pieces will aggravate an attack of this kind.

Gastritis is seen more often in older children who are permitted to drink wine or beer at the table with their parents. Children are permitted a drop of whisky or wine or beer, as their parents say, "to strengthen them." Candies and ice creams frequently cause acute gastritis in children.

Symptoms.—A young infant will suddenly refuse to take its bottle and will appear very peevish and thirsty, flex its legs on its abdomen, will seem dissatisfied, and refuse to play. Vomiting is a frequent symptom. The infant will cry and put its fingers into its mouth. The temperature on the first day ranges between 102° and 103° F., though it may reach as high as 105° F. in the rectum. The pulse ranges between 140 and 160. The respiration is sometimes accelerated. The tongue is usually coated with a white or a grayish-white fur, and there is a fœtid odor to the breath. Diarrhœa may be present, although constipation is more frequently met with.

When children are extremely anæmic, or if from previous malnutrition hey are rachitic, the disease will commence with convulsions. Convulsions must not be looked upon as very serious unless they recur several times during the first day of the attack.

A diagnosis of meningitis will frequently be made in the commencement of an acute catarrhal gastritis, unless we study the pulse-rate. In meningitis the pulse-rate is usually slow; in gastritis it is greatly accelerated. Pressure on the epigastrium will show marked tenderness. The stomach is usually distended and tympanitic on percussion.

If a child is old enough to complain, there are usually subjective symptoms such as headache, frontal in character, and pains in the arms and legs will be described. Jaundice will usually be found in older children in the course of the disease, and denotes an extension of the catarrhal inflammation from the stomach into the duodenum; thus gastro-duodenitis may be diagnosed when jaundice is established.

Prognosis and Course.—The prognosis of an acute catarrhal gastritis depends on the time of the year and the condition of the child at the time of the attack. If a bottle-fed infant is attacked with gastritis in midsummer, and it cannot be removed from the sultry city, then the prognosis is grave. If, however, breast-milk can be given judiciously and the feeding interval conform with the requirements of the weak digestive apparatus, then we may reasonably hope for a favorable termination. If complications occur, chief among which may be typhoid fever, or an extension of the disease from the stomach into the bowel, then the outlook will not be good, unless we can remove the patient to the mountains or seashore.

Nephritis frequently complicates gastritis, and when such complications exist the prognosis is bad. Infectious diseases complicating gastritis will render the prognosis unfavorable.

The important point to note is, how much food is being assimilated. If the infant digests a proper quantity of food the prognosis is good; if, however, vomiting continues and we cannot feed the child per mouth or per rectum, then the prognosis is very grave. We must aim to prevent starvation if the child's life is to be saved.

Treatment.—The first thing to do is to cleanse the stomach. This can be accomplished by giving a dose of castor-oil, syrup of rhubarb, or calomel. If the child is old enough some citrate of magnesia in wineglassful doses, repeated every two or three hours, will correct fermentation. When rapid cleansing of the stomach is demanded, owing to toxic symptoms from ptomaine poisoning or from other poisons, an emetic should be given. A dose of 1 grain of sulphate of copper in a teaspoonful of water, repeated every half-hour until vomiting is produced, will materially aid in cleansing the stomach. Syrup of ipecac, in teaspoonful doses, may also be given in some instances, although the writer does not advocate the use of syrups in fermentative diseases of the stomach or bowels. In other cases washstomach with a soft catheter, as mentioned in the treatment summer complaint, will prove very valuable. Several pints of table salt lution or of normal salt solution[1] can be used to thoroughly cleanse the omach until the water is syphoned off quite clear. In washing the stomach ith the aid of a soft-rubber catheter there is usually quite some irritation roduced in the pharynx and œsophagus, and thus vomiting will usually id in the lavage in clearing the stomach of its contents. When such treatment has been instituted it is advisable to allow the stomach to rest at least ix or seven hours, and meanwhile give sterile water—"ordinary boiled ater"—*ad libitum.*

When the bowels have been properly cleansed and the stomach has been washed by lavage, or treated with one of the above-mentioned laxatives, then the after-treatment will consist in preventing further fermentation, and also in toning up the patient's condition.

Medicinal Treatment.—Experiments have shown that when the gastric contents have been syphoned off or examined immediately after an emetic has been given, in an acute gastritis, there is a deficiency of hydrohloric acid. This is an indication then as to what is required.

Diluted hydrochloric acid given in doses of from 2 to 5 drops has erved the writer very well when given every three or four hours.

℞ Acid hydrochloric dilut.	1 drachm
Essence pepsin (Fairchild)	2 ounces

M. D. S. Teaspoonful repeated every two or three hours.

Beta-naphthol bismuth in doses of 1 to 5 grains, every two hours, has erved me very well. Calcined magnesia[2] is also very valuable. The folowing prescription has been used with very good results in dyspeptic conitions attended with constipation:—

℞ Magnesia usta	1 drachm
Pulv. rhei	1 drachm
Saccharine	2 grains

M. and divide into 12 powders. One powder to be given in a teaspoonful of erile water every two or three hours.

Powdered charcoal added to the above prescription in doses of 1 grain ree times a day is frequently useful. Salol in doses of 1 grain every two three hours, and resorcin in doses of $^1/_{10}$ grain or $^1/_4$ grain, for a child year old, repeated three times a day, will do good in some instances.

A very good liquid preparation sold in drug stores is milk of magnesia hillip's). It is an excellent antacid and corrective when flatulence ists.

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[1] Formulæ for saline solutions will be found in the chapter on "Scarlet Fever."

[2] Magnesia in powdered form I frequently use is known as Husband's Magnesia drug stores.

When severe thirst exists boiled water may be given. This water may be acidulated with a few drops of diluted phosphoric acid, and will be found not only very grateful and cooling, but very serviceable if the child has a tendency to diarrhœa in midsummer.

Dietetic Treatment.—The most important point to remember is the feeding. If we are dealing with the nursling, then breast-milk should be withheld for about one-half day. When the breast is given again, the infant should not be permitted to nurse more than two or three minutes, and immediately after taking the breast the infant should receive 3 or 4 ounces of sweetened rice water. In this manner we will give the infant diluted milk. This breast and rice-water feeding should be repeated in four hours, no sooner, no matter what the age of the infant.

What might appear very radical is simply advised, to prevent the stomach from performing its usual amount of work until the gastric function is reëstablished. If, however, the child's appetite warrants it, then one or two days should elapse before giving it its former regular quantity of nursing. The guide to the return of the normal quantity of nursing will be the disappearance of the fever and of the accelerated pulse-rate. The child's craving for the breast can be noted chiefly by constant crying when the breast is removed, and the ravenous manner in which it nurses.

In bottle-fed babies it is advisable to give the child one-half of the former quantity of milk or cream which it received at the time of its illness, and if it is found that the sugar contained in the food aggravates this condition, a small quantity of saccharine may be used to sweeten the milk, and the sugar discontinued. Some children show distinct fermentative changes after the use of too much sugar. In such cases the use of saccharine or one-half teaspoonful of glycerine to each bottle of milk is sometimes beneficial as a temporary substitute.

Glycerine is absolutely harmless and may be given for months with impunity. My rule is to insist on the use of sugar if at all possible. Lime water in doses of a teaspoonful or a tablespoonful may be added to the milk. Five grains of bicarbonate of soda may be added to the milk or given before each feeding. If vomiting follows the milk-feeding, whey should be substituted.

Attention must be paid to the quality of milk given to infants. There are many dairies in New York City which furnish an excellent quality of milk, owing to the great care bestowed upon the milk supply by the Health Department, and also by the Milk Commission.

If milk seems to aggravate an attack of dyspepsia, then zoolak or kumyss or other fermented milk may be tried. Buttermilk is very nourishing and very useful in dyspepsia. Junket may also be tried; so also can whey be given several times a day. Soups and broths, calf's foot and chicken jellies are all nourishing. Steak juice and unfermented grape juice will be serviceable. Boiled fruits, such as apples and peaches, if the child is old enough and the condition warrants it, may be tried.

Our aim must be to have the infant fed with a large interval of rest, so that nausea and vomiting may be prevented, and in order that the food may be properly assimilated. We must therefore give small quantities with large feeding intervals. When the functions are again normal then we can return to a judicious, nutritious diet, as demanded by the infantile stomach. It is advisable to give nux vomica in doses of 1 minim for a child, 1 to 3 years old, three times a day before feeding, and to continue the same for months after the gastritis disappears. The writer has seen the most marked improvement following the use of this drug, and regards it as a specific for toning the stomach.

Malt extract should be given in doses of a half teaspoonful, three times a day, to aid nutrition. It is well known that malt has a decided laxative effect. Care should be taken that fermentation is not reëstablished while giving malt. In some cases it is not well borne in the commencement of an acute gastritis, and a total abstinence of milk and the substitution of boiled water, whey, soups, and broths may become necessary; very weak tea, to which the white of a raw egg has been added and sweetened with saccharine or with granulated sugar, can be given with advantage.

Fever.—The temperature in the course of an acute gastritis requires no antipyretic treatment, although sponging the surface or a cold pack, applied over the thorax and abdomen, will be serviceable. Specific fever treatment is uncalled for. The well-known depressing effect of antipyretic drugs must not be forgotten, and hence the specific cause of the disease must be removed. This is usually stagnant food. The same requires cleaning out with calomel or cascara. The cause of the fever will be removed with such effectual treatment.

When children have a tendency to convulsions then a mustard foot-bath can be given and an ice-bag applied over the anterior fontanel, or at the nape of the neck. In such instances the most rapid treatment will be called for, such as washing the stomach with a catheter, using warm salt water. An emetic will prove useful in those cases where lavage cannot be successfully carried out.

Alcoholic stimulation is contraindicated in every form of gastric fever. The writer has always seen bad results follow the use of whisky when the gastric mucous membrane was inflamed. If, however, the patient is threatened with collapse, or the pulse is very weak, then small doses of musk in the form of a tincture of musk can be injected hypodermically, every hour, until the pulse-rate improves. Camphorated oil, injected hypodermically, in doses of from 5 to 15 minims, may do good in some cases.

Hot coffee may be given in small doses, two or three teaspoonfuls repeated every fifteen minutes, until its physiological effect is manifested.

PYLORIC OBSTRUCTION CAUSED BY SPASM OF THE PYLORUS.

The symptoms of obstruction of the pylorus, due to spasm or obstruction due to hypertrophy, are strikingly similar. It is difficult to differentiate the same in many cases. In the one, the spasm is a benign condition which yields to and is frequently overcome by mild and palliative remedies. In stenosis, however, we have a serious condition and one that has cost many lives, despite proper surgical measures.

Causes.—The most frequent cause of pyloric spasm in infancy is due to irritating food, that is, food containing excessive high fat and high proteids. Another cause of pyloric irritation resulting in spasm is seen when human milk is suddenly withdrawn and cows' milk substituted. When there is deficient peptic secretion, including hyperacidity, such condition as spasm may be caused by stagnation of the gastric contents.

Common Symptoms.—The most noteworthy symptom in this condition is vomiting or regurgitation. Said vomiting will follow soon after food reaches the stomach. In some cases all of the food partaken will be ejected; in other cases small quantities will be vomited at intervals. On placing the infant in the dorsal position antiperistaltic waves can be noted by inspecting the abdomen. These waves are seen after food is taken. These worm-like movements disappear when the stomach is empty. From the loss of food and improper nutrition there naturally results loss of weight. When the spasm yields, the food will pass into the duodenum, and resulting therefrom there will be more or less fæces evident. If, therefore, stool is noted, then spasm of the pylorus and not stenosis exists.

Pyloric Stenosis.—When an obstruction due to a pyloric hypertrophy and stenosis exists, there results usually a dilatation of the stomach from the stagnation of the gastric contents. The evacuations following colonic flushing will bring away some jelly-like or greenish masses, but milk fæces will not be found. This is an important diagnostic point and will differentiate the spasmodic from the stenosed condition.

Diagnostic Aid.—A small metallic bucket, devised by Einhorn, somewhat smaller than an ordinary sized pea, is fastened to a white silk cord.

This bucket is introduced into the stomach by placing it on the tongue and feeding the infant a bottle of water or food. The infant swallows the bucket and the same is allowed to remain in the stomach over night. When pyloric stenosis is present the bucket remains in the stomach. If, however, there is no stenosis the bucket will pass into the duodenum, and the *bile-stained string* will show the probable depth that the bucket entered the duodenum.

The following cases will give an idea of the length of the cord required at various ages:—

Name.	Age.	Weight.	From Mouth to Cardia.	From Mouth to Pylorus.	Total Length.
Baby K.	3 mos.	8 lbs. 10 ozs.	11 cm.	16 cm.	22 cm.
Baby R.	2 wks.	7 lbs. 9 ozs,	14 cm.	20 cm.	24 cm.
Baby B.	2 mos, 2 wks.	6 lbs. 1 oz.	12 cm.	17 cm.	21 cm.
Baby K.	4 mos.	11 lbs. 14 ozs.	15 cm.	21 cm.	27 cm.
Baby A.	10 mos.	11 lbs. 12 ozs.	16 cm.	24 cm.	30 cm.

I choose the evening feeding time or about 6 P.M. as the best time for introducing the bucket, then give the infant the regular feeding, and with very few exceptions the same was retained. If, however, the bucket was expelled by vomiting it was reintroduced at the next feeding. To be sure that no obstruction to the duodenum existed, I left the bucket in over night. On withdrawing the same after about twelve hours, a yellowish bile-stain from the duodenal bucket for at least 8 to 10 centimeters will be noted on the cord. In pyloric obstruction, however, *no bile-stain* was noted.

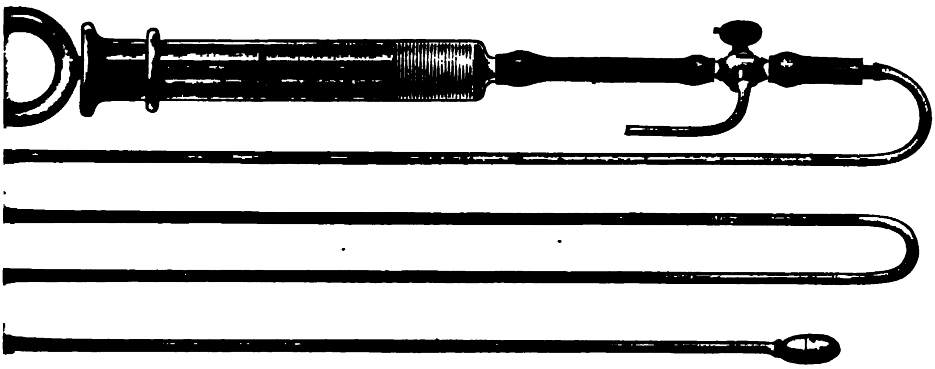

Fig. 59.—Infantile Duodenal Bucket with Syringe attached, to Aspirate Bile.

By this method of diagnosis we can learn whether or no pyloric stenosis is present. It is an important aid if surgical relief is demanded.

Instead of a cord, a thin rubber tubing attached to and ending in a perforated bucket can be passed into the stomach, and by leaving it there several hours the bucket will pass through into the duodenum. By means of a little glass syringe, I was enabled to aspirate bile, in some cases a greenish, in other cases a yellowish fluid, alkaline in reaction and of viscid consistency.

There are three ferments for which a test can be made. They are: (*a*) steapsin, (*b*) trypsin, (*c*) amylopsin.

(*a*) To test for trypsin, I use 1 drop of neutral milk, 2 drops of water, 2 or 3 drops of duodenal contents (neutralized if the reaction is acid), and a small piece of blue litmus agar. This is placed into a miniature test tube and kept at blood temperature. If steapsin is present the agar will be red in twenty to thirty minutes, owing to the development of fatty acids.

(*b*) For the demonstration of trypsin I use a small piece of th of a hard-boiled egg, which is placed in the fluid to be examined (if is first neutralized) and kept a few hours at blood temperature. Th of egg albumin disappears in the presence of trypsin. The ricin te for pepsin is unsuitable for trypsin. If we add ricin solution to d contents and leave it at blood temperature for a few hours, and th hydrochloric acid or acetic acid, the ricin will often be precipitated, will not be changed into soluble peptone.

(*c*) Amylopsin. In testing for the presence of diastase we m of a boiled starch solution or starch paper. We mix the duodenal c with the starch solution (in equal parts), or insert a strip of star paper and leave it at blood temperature for one-half to one hour, ad weak solution of iodine. Starch, if present, gives a blue color, and e dextrin a red color; otherwise only a trace of brown from the iodine.

HYPERTROPHIC PYLORIC STENOSIS.

This condition is not so rare in infancy as is commonly su While in 1902 Cautley and Dent reported 109 cases, we have sin over 150 cases recorded in medical literature.

Etiology.—Stenosis may occur as a congenital malformation. acidity is believed to be responsible for some cases of spasm of the resulting in hypertrophy. Thomson believes that by the ingestion o amnii in intra-uterine life both the stomach and pylorus are excited action, due to the presence of this irritant fluid.

Morbid Anatomy.—Under normal conditions the circular musc of the pylorus at birth are relatively augmented, gradually approac normal as the long axis of the stomach assumes its horizontal directi the vertical; this relative augmentation of the circular fibers is i to prevent the too rapid emptying of the vertical tubular infantile during the first two weeks of life. These fibers, stimulated to e function by any given cause, must, according to recognized physi principles, become hypertrophied.

Accepting such a working basis, we should recognize in hype pyloric stenosis the ultimate results of a pathological process wh stage is represented by an excessive functional activity of the pyloric lature; its second stage by hypertrophy and spasm of this musculat the third stage by a general overgrowth of the normal constituent involved parts.

Symptoms.—There is a sudden onset of symptoms. The f suddenly disagree. There are active peristaltic and antiperistalti visible. This is most marked after the infant has swallowed food o In a case reported by me very strong peristaltic waves could be m left to right.[1] There was a distinct hourglass contraction, the stomach lging on either side with a sulcus in the middle. The abdominal walls re lax. The intestinal wall, chiefly the transverse colon, can be easily mapped out.

On palpating the pylorus in my own case, a hard, resisting mass about the size of an adult's thumb could be felt. Gradual emaciation from inanition will be noted.

Stagnation of the gastric contents is proven by the fact that, while two ounces of the food are swallowed, six or eight ounces are frequently regurgitated and vomited. The quantity of urine is also scant, owing to the small quantity of liquid and food absorbed. A whole day will frequently pass without a single diaper being wet.

The examination of the gastric contents shows great variability. In my own case, the presence of lactic acid and the total absence of hydrochloric acid were noted. Other observers have noted an excess of hydrochloric acid.

Prognosis.—If the vomiting persists, death will occur from exhaustion. In a case seen by me, where operation was refused, the infant died of inanition after three weeks.

Treatment.—Dilute the food to half-strength. If a milk mixture containing 2 per cent. of fat has been given, then 1 per cent. should be tried.

There should be a longer interval between the feedings. If a baby has been fed every two hours, it should be fed once in three hours. If two ounces had been given at one feeding, then one ounce should be tried. If, after this method, vomiting persists, then the stomach should be allowed to rest at least twenty-four hours, during which time rectal feeding can be tried. Stomach-washing every morning with normal saline solution may do good in some cases.

On the theory that hyperacidity caused pyloric spasm, Knoepfelmacher used whole milk feedings to modify the hyperacidity. Bromide of sodium, codeine, menthol, or subnitrate of bismuth may be tried.

Surgical Treatment.—If, after a patient trial of the above-outlined plan, the condition does not improve, then surgical relief is indicated. In this stenotic stage, gastro-duodenostomy in two sittings, if necessary, should be the operation of choice.

"At the first of these, slight fixation of the involved parts to the abdominal incision, opening of the duodenum, and the insertion of a temporary catheter for purposes of direct feeding.

"After a proper interval, depending upon the patient's gain in nutrition and strength, an anastomosis between this opening in the duodenum and the stomach, either by the small button of Meyer or a modification of the Finney operation." (Sturmdorf.)

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[1] Archives of Pediatrics, May, 1906.

Post-operative Treatment.—Strychnine, $^1/_{150}$ grain hypodermica every three hours, is required. Normal saline injections, either by hi colonic flushing, or, if the pulse is weak, by means of hypodermoclysis.

By mouth, several teaspoonfuls of whey every hour. This method ample for the first few days, after which special feeding rules may be i dicated.

GASTRO-DUODENITIS (CATARRHAL JAUNDICE).

When the infection of an acute catarrhal gastritis extends into the du denum, jaundice usually results. This is due to an involvement of th common bile ducts.

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—Yellowish pigmentation of the skin and co junctival mucous membrane are noted. The urine is brown or deep yello The stool is whitish or clay-colored. The temperature ranges betwe 100° and 103° F. Anorexia and thirst usually exist. Nausea or vomitin may occur. The pulse is full and regular. The liver is usually enlarged.

Treatment.—Elaterine or podophyllin in $^1/_4$ grain doses, repeated, necessary, in three hours, or phosphate of soda, 10 to 20 grain doses eve three hours, until liquid stools are produced. Dilute nitro-muriatic aci 2 to 5 drops may be given twice a day. Liquid food, such as thin soup diluted milk or skim-milk or buttermilk, and fruit juices, for thirst.

CHRONIC GASTRITIS (CHRONIC GLANDULAR GASTRITIS—CHRONIC VOMITING).

This is a chronic inflammatory disease affecting the gastric muco membrane. The functions of the stomach are disturbed owing to the lar quantities of alkaline mucus being secreted. There is a distinct loss tone in the gastric mucosa. Large quantities of food will frequently sta nate, causing fermentation and vomiting.

Pathology.—The changes in chronic gastritis, seen post-mortem, a similar to those met with in the acute form. There is a degeneration of t epithelium of the gastric tubules. Frequently there is dilatation of t stomach.

Microscopically the glands often seem enlarged, sacculated, and dilat in cyst-like forms. Ewald states that there is a mucoid degeneratio When there is a total destruction of the glandular layer of the entire orga we have an atrophic condition which Ewald calls anadenia ventriculi.

Symptoms.—Vomiting is a prominent symptom. Large quantities sour or bile-stained mucus are ejected. At other times sour-smelling liqu containing particles of food is ejected. Farinaceous foods cause particul distress. Pains referred to the abdomen are complained of, and the abd men is usually distended and tender on palpation. The tongue is coate

The papillæ are enlarged and the edges and tip are of a bright glazed red. Eructations of gas are frequently noted, especially after feeding.

The Bowels.—Constipation alternates with diarrhœa in this condition. We find a child will suffer with constipation for three or four days, and for no apparent reason a diarrhœa will appear and continue for a week or more. Eczema is usually associated with this condition. There is usually anorexia. Owing to the malnutrition, such children appear underfed and seem to be anæmic. They emaciate from loss of sleep in addition to the continued vomiting. Their extremities are usually cold, owing to a poor circulation. Headache is a prominent symptom in children old enough to complain. The clinical picture is such that one must take extreme care to make a proper diagnosis. Frequently there is a hacking cough present. We may exclude tuberculosis if the pulmonary signs are wanting in addition to the absence of the tubercle bacillus.

Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is easily made if we remember that tuberculosis has fever which at times assumes a hectic form. We have previously mentioned the necessity of finding the tubercle bacillus if tuberculosis is suspected. Typhoid fever is so different that we can easily exclude this by resorting to the Widal and diazo reactions. Syphilis, if suspected, will respond to specific treatment.

Prognosis and Course.—This condition should be looked upon as every other chronic disease in which vitality, surroundings, and proper care play an important part. If a child of a poor family living in a tenement house suffers with this chronic disease, the outcome will be different than if the child were living in the country, where fresh air could and would stimulate metabolism. Rarely is this condition fatal, although with extreme emaciation and continued vomiting inanition may cause death.

Treatment.—*Dietetic Treatment:* This is the most important factor. The feeding interval should be extended so that the child should be fed less often than formerly. The quantity of food should be reduced so that the stomach receives less work. By all means give food that is easily assimilated. In some cases nothing but predigested food or peptonized milk will be retained. Each child should receive a carefully prepared diet list, and we must insist on strict rules. Give older children soups, broths, albumin, such as white of egg, and peptonized yolk of egg. Give infants diluted milk or one of the infant foods temporarily. When vomiting persists and apparently little or no food is retained, it is advisable to put the child to bed and resort to rectal feeding for two or three days. This is one of the best means of allaying gastric irritability. (See chapter on "Rectal Feeding.")

Hygiene.—Without fresh air, active exercise, such as walking, or passive movements, such as massage or gymnastics, we must expect little or no benefit. Daily sponging or bathing, followed by friction with a coarse towel, will stimulate the circulation.

Medication.—Stomach washing, by using 1 or 2 pints of warm water to which bicarbonate of soda has been added, is very useful. This may be repeated every day. Sodium phosphate, in 5- to 10- grain doses, every morning or evening, is indicated.

Fowler's solution, in 1- to 5- drop doses, three times a day, and nux vomica, in 1-minim doses, three times a day.[1]

Bismuth subnitrate or bismuth beta-naphthol, to relieve the diarrhœa, are very valuable remedies.

For persistent vomiting menthol, in 1-grain doses, and oxalate of cerium, in 2- or 3- grain doses, every few hours, are useful. Gentle currents of faradic electricity will also aid and strengthen the atonic condition.

ACUTE DILATATION OF THE STOMACH.

This condition is quite frequently met with in children.

Etiology.—The anatomical and physiological peculiarities of the infantile stomach render it peculiarly susceptible to the development of this

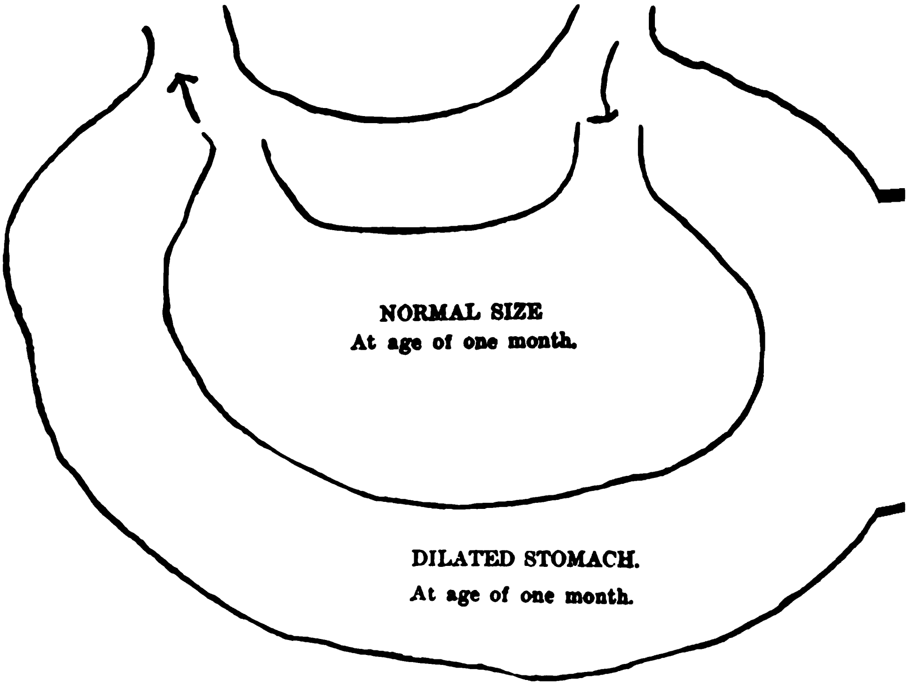

Fig. 60.—Drawing from a Case of Acute Dilatation of the Stomach. Giving Exact Size Post-mortem. Bottle-fed Infant. Summer Complaint, Due to Over-feeding, and Too Frequent Feeding. Compare normal size with the dilated condition. (Original.)

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[1] Fraser, of New York City, makes a 1-minim nux vomica tablet, which is soluble and quite palatable.

condition. The walls of the stomach are thin. The weakness of the resistance of the muscular walls and the ease with which a general anæmia and resultant muscular atony occur in children must be remembered in considering etiological factors. Rachitis plays an important part in the development of this condition. Severe gastric catarrh with associated fermentative conditions are predisposing factors.

Pathology.—A general atrophied condition of the entire gastric wall exists. The muscular coats are frequently thickened. The mucous membrane shows evidences of chronic catarrh. This condition is usually seen in marasmic or rachitic children. The stomach is invariably dilated.

The symptoms of this condition correspond to those of chronic gastric catarrh. In standing the child upright the contour of the greater curvature of the stomach can be made out if emaciation exists. Vomiting is a prominent symptom, a sour, frothy liquid being thrown up. Succussion is frequently heard, but cannot be depended on as a positive symptom in this condition. Children suffering with acute dilatation usually have a very good appetite. They always show evidences of malnutrition. The results of percussion are very misleading. A tympanitic sound may be heard when the child is on its back. It may also be absent. Henoch states that severe dilatation of the stomach in a child may cause dyspnœa. It may also displace the heart if dilatation is severe.

Diagnosis.—The diagnosis can usually be made by the symptoms above described. It is important to remember that a dilatation of the colon may exist at the same time; if so the differentiation between dilatation of the colon and dilatation of the stomach can be made by artificially distending the stomach with the aid of a Seidlitz powder. Transllumination of the stomach with the aid of a gastrodiaphane will aid in mapping out the anatomical outlines of the stomach.

Prognosis.—This depends on the condition of the child when treatment is commenced. If the child is physically debilitated and does not assimilate food, the prognosis is grave. It is safest to give a cautious prognosis in every case.

Treatment.—Semi-solid foods should be given, if possible, and large quantities of liquids avoided. The normal tone of the stomach can best be restored by the administration of nux vomica and iron in suitable doses. The value of electricity and massage must be remembered. They will restore the tone of the stomach when judiciously used. Specific conditions such as rickets and syphilis, if present, require their proper treatment.

BULIMIA (ABNORMAL APPETITE).

Constant desire to eat is frequently seen when intestinal parasites, such as tapeworm, are present. It is also found as a symptom of hysteria.

A. B., 7 years old, desired five and six meals a day. Her body was emaciated and occasional abdominal pains were described. The mother attributed the pains to overeating. After several doses of filix mas a tapeworm was dislodged (see treatment in the chapter on "Tapeworm") and the bulimia disappeared.

Gastroptosis (Descensus Ventriculi), Low Position of the Stomach.

We are indebted to Glenard[1] for emphasizing sufficiently the clinical symptoms due to this condition.

Etiology.—In subnormal conditions such as chlorosis or where a general atony exists, a weakening of the ligaments takes place and the abdominal viscera consequently descends. Very tight lacing is frequently a cause in young girls.

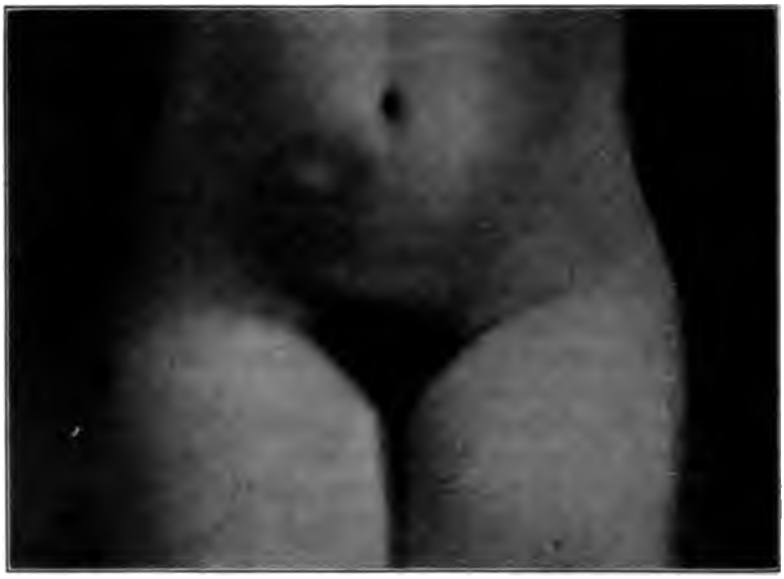

Fig. 61.—Transillumination of the Stomach with the Aid of a Gastrodiaphane, in a Case of Gastroptosis. (Original.)

In a series of autopsies made by Glenard he found the transverse colon displaced and stenosed.[2]

Symptoms.—A variety of nervous symptoms such as irritability, headache, restlessness by day and insomnia by night, is frequently due to this disorder. The symptoms which characterize nervous dyspepsia in the adult correspond with the train of symptoms noted in this condition. Constipation is usually present; there are loss of appetite and eructations.

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[1] Lyon médicale, 1885, p. 450.

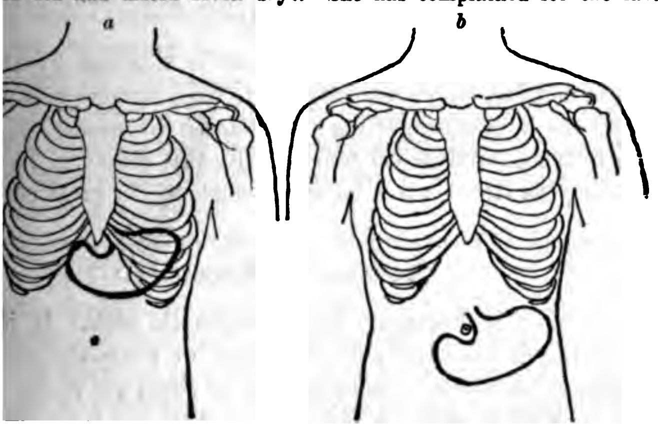
[2] Einhorn: "Diseases of the Stomach," First Edition, p. 368.

—Ewald advises inflation of the stomach as the best means
“When the stomach is inflated the lesser curvature, in cases
s, is visible midway between the ensiform process and the
in the neighborhood of the umbilicus.” With the aid of the
e we can transluminate the stomach and make out the contour
This has been found a valuable means of diagnosis. The red
rea can be plainly made out if the room is darkened. The
illustrates this condition as met with in practice:—

ras first seen by me when 13 years old.

istory.—Father and mother living and well. She has six sisters and
ıg, all in good health. There is no family history of syphilis, rheuma-
losis. One child of 3 years died from pneumonia complicating measles.

History.—She was a breast-fed child and appeared to be well de-
as had measles and with it bronchitis. Menstruation appeared when
rs old and lasted seven days. She has complained for the last two



a) Normal Position of Stomach. (*b*) Position of Stomach in a Case of Gastroptosis. (Original.)

hes, pains in the back and abdomen, loss of appetite, and does not
e is very nervous and has had a peculiar unilateral twitching in-
ht arm and shoulder. This twitching appears spasmodically and is
en her attention is directed to it. She complains of cold extremi-
an occasional cough. No expectoration. The cough appears to be
racter as that seen in adults which is described as a hysterical cough.
ical examination[1] of the gastric contents syphoned off one hour after
meal of tea and zwieback gave the following: 25 cubic centimeters
greenish yellow, very tenacious, ptyalin present in saliva. Reaction
e acid, no free hydrochloric present, lactic acid absent, peptones
present, starch present, combined hydrochloric acid present, estimated
als 0.02 per cent. hydrochloric acid. A splashing sound could be made
side of the abdomen in the area bounded by the umbilicus or above
hysis pubis. With the aid of the gastrodiaphane the outline of the
be plainly seen extending below the umbilicus. In the accompany-
(Fig. 62) the position of the stomach is outlined.

[1] ebted to Mr. LaWall, chemist, for this analysis.

Prognosis and Course.—A displaced organ is not easily replaced by giving drugs or by mechanical treatment. The physician should inform the patient's relatives regarding the true condition. The life of the child is not necessarily endangered by the displaced stomach, yet the abnormality should be treated on the principle of general building up of the entire system with special reference to the diet.

Treatment.—The treatment of these cases consists in building up the system with the aid of electricity, massage, and general restorative treatment; cold sponging with brisk friction of the surface of the body to stimulate the circulation; also, light bodily gymnastics. Nux vomica or its alkaloid, strychnine, should be given for a long time.

A tight-fitting abdominal bandage has frequently relieved acute symptoms. Boas, of Berlin; Einhorn, Kemp, and Rose, of New York, are among those who advocate supporting the abdominal muscles by this mechanical device.

Surgical Treatment.—When no relief is obtained by the abdominal supporter or bandage previously referred to, then surgery may be demanded. Some surgeons advise supporting the stomach by means of stitching the omentum to the abdominal peritoneum. By this means we have "a method of suspending the stomach in a hammock made by the great omentum."

ULCER OF THE STOMACH.

Gastric ulcer is frequently seen in chlorotic girls. It is usually the result of living in unsanitary surroundings, or when the body is reduced to a subnormal condition. Young girls at or about the period of menstruation that are sent to work in factories or shops, who cannot take proper time for their meals, are occasionally seen with evidences of gastric ulcer. In most cases the ulcer is simply a continuation of a chronic catarrh of the gastric mucous membrane which has laid the foundation for this condition.

Symptoms.—Pain in the stomach, which is distinctly localized and can be pointed to in the same area. The pain increases after taking solid food, although pain is also noted when any liquid enters the stomach. At times bright-red blood will be expectorated, although the blood may be very dark in color. There is also a tender area, usually localized between the ninth and tenth dorsal vertebræ, which is marked on palpation.

Diagnosis.—The positive diagnosis should only be made after a chemical examination of the gastric contents is made. The test meal and the method of examination are described in Part XII, Chapter II, to which the reader is referred. If an excess of HCl is found in addition to the subjective symptoms of pain, the diagnosis of gastric ulcer is positive.

The following case of gastric ulcer was presented by me before the New York County Medical Association, May 15, 1899:—

Mary B., 13 years old, complained of headaches and general weakness. She as emaciated and had anorexia. She had suffered with constipation, dizziness, ausea, and vomiting. Her heart's action was irregular. For four years she omplained of pain in the middle of the stomach which was always localized in he same area. The gastric pains were strongest after partaking of solid food. She had pain whenever any food, solid or liquid, was swallowed. The pain is described as a burning pain. She has a tender area between the ninth and tenth dorsal vertebræ. This tenderness is marked on palpation. Three years ago she had an attack of hæmatemesis, but none since then. The gastric contents were examined after a test meal, and an excess of HCl was found. Owing to the danger of traumatism I thought it best not to repeat the syphoning off of the gastric contents, as there was a risk in repeating the hæmorrhage. There was no evidence of hysteria in the case. The diagnosis of gastric ulcer was made.

Treatment.—Liquid diet, rest in bed, and bismuth gave quite some relief. When solid food was tried the gastric pain returned.

Prognosis and Course.—Great care should be taken before giving a positive opinion concerning the outcome of gastric ulcer. If the conditions that induced the disease can be modified, then a chance for recovery exists. These cases, as a rule, do badly unless placed under the strictest supervision of a trained nurse. Such cases require treatment in bed, rather than ambulant treatment. Years of patient treatment may be required before positive benefit is secured.

The prognosis depends on the above conditions. The disease is chronic and may cause death.

Treatment.—Such cases do well by having a change of air. These children should not be permitted to attend school, and the same applies to the workshop, if the child is working. Sea bathing and cold sponging of the body, followed by friction, is very beneficial. A rigid liquid diet, consisting of peptonized milk, zoolak, soup, broth, and strained gruel, with an occasional change to cocoa, should be allowed. Fruit may also be permitted. This treatment must usually be carried out for months before recovery may be expected.

CYCLIC VOMITING.

A great many writers report attacks of vomiting occurring at irregular or regular intervals of weeks or months which are termed cyclic vomiting. They claim that these attacks are not dependent on acute gastric disturbances, but are simply explosions due to latent or possibly nervous conditions. As a rule, we have such attacks in cases of acidosis. More often these attacks of so-called cyclic vomiting are associated with recurrent attacks of appendicitis. A blood examination should be made (see article on "Appendicitis"), so that we can exclude appendicitis as a cause of the cyclic vomiting. (See article on the "Significance of Vomiting," page 71.)

DYSPEPTIC ASTHMA.

Peripheral irritation of the terminal filaments of the pneumog nerve frequently causes dyspeptic symptoms, which result in asth attacks similar to those found in adults. A case of this kind came my care in which fermentative conditions in the stomach caused pre on the diaphragm and gave rise to asthmatic attacks.

A well-nourished boy, 9 years old, was referred to me by Dr. H. Jarecky had attacks of coughing, wheezing, and slight cyanosis. The hands and feet cold. The tongue was coated; the stomach distended with gas and very tymp on percussion. The asthmatic attacks were caused by the distention and pre on the diaphragm, and disappeared when a rigid diet and a laxative were g The boy suffered in addition with rheumatism.

CHAPTER IV.

DISEASES OF THE INTESTINES.

INFANT STOOLS.

conium.—The first discharge from an infant's bowels is called m. It has a greenish-brown color; at times it resembles ink in It is composed of epithelial cells, bile, cholesterin crystals, and ligested amniotic fluid. Meconium has no odor. It is usually acid in ı. The color of the infant's stool changes after a few days of ma- r bottle feeding.

soon as the exclusive milk diet is changed to the mixed diet we then characteristic infantile stool, and it resembles more that of an adult, remaining softer and thinner throughout infancy. The stools be- arker in color, assume the adult odor, and have more varieties of ı than those previously mentioned as found in the stool of a milk

new conception of the various food elements shows that the opinion years ago regarding the dangers of high fat has been modified, and sibility of a protein or casein element being the disturbing factor ed. Modern science has proven beyond a doubt that one reason why element or casein disagrees is due to the presence of *milk sugar;* re today regard the *carbohydrate and salt* as the disturbing element y cases, rather than the fat or casein.

ıkelstein, of Berlin, has proven that in atrophic and marasmic in which there is a constant decomposition associated with fever and ted stools we can modify the nutrition and restore faulty metabolism tting the addition of sugar or salt. The most important point, , is that we can feed a very large fat and protein food, such as casein escribed in the chapter on Faulty Metabolism, without causing disturbance.

e stool of a nursling or an infant on a human breast should be h in color, smeary or pasty-like in consistency, and have an acid . Normal yellow stool of a breast-fed infant contains bilirubin. ilirubin is associated with bilirubin after several weeks.

t infrequently during the first three months, normal infants fed ely at the human breast will have several stools a day. They may n, watery, contain mucus, or appear lumpy. Such infants thrive, weight, sleep well, and are apparently healthy. The cause of such stool has not yet been determined. They may be caused by ıl influences. Such stools are more frequent whilst the mother is ıating. These stools should by no means be regarded as due to a pathological condition, for we all can notice how this condition will regulate itself; even though greenish stools persist for several weeks, by no means should we change the food, but continue the breast if at all possible for the first three months.

In no branch of pediatrics has so much progress been made in recent years as in the study and interpretation of infant fæces. The more we study infantile metabolism, the more we find that an intimate relationship between internal secretions, on the one hand, and properly modified food, on the other hand, must exist.

Modern views concerning the nature of curds in the stool have decidedly changed since the studies of Czerny and Keller. What formerly was believed to be casein curds is now proven by chemical analysis to consist principally of fat, but there are large, tough curds which are composed of casein in which fat is intermingled. The small, soft curds, however, some of them lentil-shaped or resembling round or flattened particles of compressed butter, consist chiefly of fatty acids and calcium soap in addition to a low percentage of protein.

Talbot describes a simple test which will easily differentiate a casein curd from a fat curd, by placing the supposed curd in a 10 per cent. formalin and allowing it to stand from four to six hours. If casein the curd will harden; if fat it will become soft.

Langstein,[1] speaking of the white fæces, regards the same as due to a faulty assimilation and signifies the beginning of a disturbance of metabolism. Thus, such white fæces may be due to a deficiency of the biliary secretion, but there also may be a disturbance in the intestine. Czerny and Keller regard the cause of the white fæces as due to the presence of calcium soap.

Jaffé, Gerhardt, and Zoja in a series of examinations have shown that when urobilin and bilirubin are absent, the derivatives of the bile-pigments such as urobilinogen, may be present. This latter substance is a reduction product of urobilin. Urobilinogen is constantly noted in alkaline solutions but is transformed into urobilin in an acid solution.

Normal and healthy children, such as those fed on human milk, give a negative urobilinogen reaction in the urine. On the other hand, artificially fed infants give a strong urobilinogen reaction in the urine. The reaction is very strong in cases of occlusion of the common bile-ducts, so that this reaction is of great service in the differentiation of duodenal catarrh in infancy.

One of the reasons for the presence of the large curds is the absence of hydrochloric acid, which acid when entering the duodenum stimulates the flow of pancreatic juice.[2]

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[1] Langstein: Salkowsky's Festschrift, 1904.

[2] Fisher: "Physiology of Alimentation," 1907.

Reaction of Stools.—Reaction of stools in diarrhœal disease and in health is chiefly acid, or, next in frequency, neutral. Alkaline stools are rare. Grass-green stools, usually acid, are seen in the early stage of dyspeptic diarrhœa. The color varies from a pale greenish yellow to grass green, owing to improper food.

The reaction depends on the presence of lactic acid, the source of which is the milk sugar. The only gases present are H and CO_2. According to Escherich, H_2S and CH_4, to which the odor of adult stool is due, are not present. There are no special albuminoids peculiar to woman's milk. Those existing in woman's milk seem to be entirely absorbed. Peptone exists in trifling amount. Sugar is not present. Pancreatic ferment is absent, and sometimes traces of pepsin have been found. Mucus is always present in considerable quantity; also columnar intestinal epithelium.

In the stool of nurslings large quantities of lactate of lime can be found; so also we frequently find oxalate of lime, depending on the quantity of oxalate of lime ingested. Uffelmann has noted the presence of bilirubin crystals in the stools of nurslings in perfect health.

Quantity of Fæces.—The quantity of fæces varies, but it has been found that 100 grams of milk food will produce about 3 grams of fæces, according to Baginsky. This is a vital point, but I have found it very difficult to determine, for in most cases the napkins of the infant are soiled with urine plus the fæces, thus adding to the gross weight.

Green Stools.—The green color of stool is caused by an abnormal oxidation of bile-pigment in which bilirubin is changed into biliverdin by means of an oxidase.

Typical green stools can be produced by giving an infant two or three grains of bicarbonate of soda; the soda must be given for a few days. This explains Pfeiffer's alkaline theory. Typical green stools can also be produced by giving small or large doses of calomel. If, after having given icarbonate of soda and produced green stools, we give diluted hydrochloric cid in 5- to 10- drop doses, the yellow color will reappear in a few days. hubarb will also produce a yellow stool.

Stools which are pale yellow when discharged, and which afterward come green, are often seen in disease. They may be themselves neutral alkaline in reaction; this latter may, however, depend on the admixture urine. An excess of bile may often cause very green stools.

Wegscheider has shown that the green color is the result of preformed iverdin. The condition in the intestine, upon which the transformation bilirubin into biliverdin depends, has been generally regarded as one of id fermentation.

Pfeiffer's experiments[1] show this former opinion to be wrong. He found that none of the acids formed in such fermentation—lactic, acetic, butyric, propionic, etc.—added to yellow stools outside the body turned them green, but that they made them deeper yellow. But dilute alkaline solutions added to fresh yellow stools turned them green after an exposure of thirty to sixty minutes, and strong solutions turned them, first, brown; later, after exposure to air, intense green.

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[1] "Verdauung im Säuglings-alter bei Krankhaften-Zuständen," Jahrbuch für inderheilkunde, B. 28, page 164.

Casein in high and low percentages has decided therapeutic properties. It increases the intestinal secretion which amounts to about one quart daily. It has an alkaline reaction; hence acts antagonistic to pathological acidity and thereby arrests fermentation. It is possible therefore to modify intestinal fermentation associated with putrefactive stools by omitting sugar and salt, reducing the fat, but chiefly by increasing the casein.

When milk sugar is added in large quantities to food, it results in a primary irritation of the epithelium of the intestine, resulting in acid fermentation, and this latter prevents new epithelium from forming. When this carbohydrate element (milk sugar) is reduced the symptoms are immediately modified, and when the milk sugar is discontinued the casein lumps quickly disappear from the stool; in addition thereto the stool assumes a more solid consistency.

Casein Masses or White Curds.—The coarser lumps of casein or so-called casein curds will be described later on. The small casein curds consist chiefly of fat. Casein is not nearly as common an ingredient of faeces as is supposed. As far back as 1878 Widerhofer doubted that these masses were really casein, but believed them to be fat with epithelial remains. Adler maintains that it is wrong to call a substance casein because it responds to heat, biuret, Heller, and other protein reactions.

Casein masses or casein lumps are frequently found in infants whose intestinal tract had been thoroughly emptied, and where the diet consisted of whey. It is well known that the casein masses consist chiefly of undigested remains of casein together with fatty acids and alkalies (Selter). The nucleoproteins of the intestinal secretion and the nucleoalbumins of the bile give a similar reaction. When milk has been withheld for a number of days watery discharges in enterocolitis will also give a positive protein reaction in the stool, due to casein masses. The principle of buttermilk feeding lies in the transformation of the casein into casein lactate.

When milk is deprived of fat and casein, the result is whey, and if this whey is fed to an infant we frequently have casein curds in the stool. These curds consist of saponified fats and numerous bacteria. The protein reaction does not come from casein, but from the intestinal secretion, whereas the fatty acids and saponified fats are due to the sugar in the whey.

Intestinal experiments at Finkelstein's clinic, reported by Meyer and Leopold, show that when the food contains a higher percentage of sugar than the infant can assimilate the result will be so-called casein masses in the stool. That this view is correct is proven by the fact that the moment the sugar element is reduced casein particles gradually disappear. This fact will be still more impressed when we note that with the *reduction of the sugar* we can increase the percentage of casein, thus showing a higher tolerance for casein, after we reduce the carbohydrate element.

Protein.—The protein of milk is so thoroughly absorbed that only small traces of it can be found in the fæces.

Albuminous decomposition and its products—tyrosin, indol, phenol, and skatol—are not found in milk fæces. Lactic acid, acetic acid, formic acid, and other fatty acids are present, causing the acid reaction. Von Jaksch found a saccharine ferment in the fæces of children. Baginsky found a peptonizing ferment also in infantile fæces. Escherich[1] says: "If albuminous decomposition with very foul offensive stools exists, albumins should be withheld from the diet and carbohydrates, such as dextrine foods, sugar, and milk, given. If acid fermentation is present with sour, but not offensive stools, carbohydrates are to be withheld and an albuminous food such as animal broths, bouillon, peptones, etc., given. In the decomposition of milk, the sugar of milk, and not the casein, is usually broken up."

Sugar.—If the sugar is too low, the gain in weight is apt to be slower than when furnished in proper amount. The symptoms indicating an excess of sugar are: colic or thin, green, very acid stools, sometimes causing irritation of the buttocks; sometimes there is regurgitation of food and ructations of gas.

Artificially fed children excrete hydrobilirubin constantly. Whitish ools are usually associated with atony, also with various types of mild spepsia. In dyspeptic stools we are apt to find undigested casein or ponified fats. Scrambled egg stools frequently contain particles of undi-sted casein and fat.

Fat Diarrhœa.—This condition is primarily due to an imperfect func-n of the bile as well as to the abnormal state of the pancreatic secretion. such conditions as tuberculosis of the mesenteric glands and in severe teric catarrh we are apt to find very fatty stools. According to Biedert d Demme, who have devoted considerable study to this subject, in some ildren the fæces showed 50 to 60 per cent. of fat, whereas the normal rcentage in ordinary fæces varied from 14 to 25 per cent. (which is the rmal quantity, according to Ufflemann).

Excess of fat is indicated by the frequent regurgitation of food in all quantities, usually one or two hours after feeding. Sometimes an cess of fat causes very frequent stool nearly normal in appearance. In some cases the stools contain small, round lumps somewhat resembling casein, but really masses of fat.

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[1] Jahrbuch für Kinderheilkunde, "Beiträge zur Antiseptischen Behandlungs-ethode der Magen-Darmkrankheiten des Säuglingsalters."

Blood in Stools.—Blood from the stomach or small intestine frequentl gives the stool a black color resembling tar. Thus, a practical point i Boas's "Diagnostik der Magen- und Darmkrankheiten" is that, the brighte the color of the blood, the lower down near the rectum and anus must th pathological lesion be looked for; the darker the blood, the higher up mus the cause be sought; *e.g.*, the diseased condition exists in the stomach duodenum, or jejunum, etc., if the stool contains black blood. If th corpuscular elements of the blood are wanting, then only the presence o blood can be positively diagnosticated by either a microchemical examination or by means of the spectroscope. The presence of red blood-corpuscle must always be regarded as a pathological factor.

Brown Stools, Muddy Stools.—A brown stool in an infant is frequentl caused by a diet of animal food or by a diet principally of broth. Thes stools have no distinct consistency nor reaction. In dyspeptic diarrhœa o in some forms of enterocolitis we have very offensive stools and the resemble muddy water; with the latter there is considerable flatus durin each movement.

Brown stools may be due to changed biliary pigment and to drugs *e.g.*, bismuth causes the well-known dark stool. So also tannic acid an all iron salts give the dark stool, which varies from a deep brown to black color.

Mucus.—Mucus is always present in all healthy stools and is so wel mixed with the stool that it does not appear as mucus to the naked eye Any appearance, therefore, of mucus easily visible should be regarded a abnormal. Mucus is present in every form of intestinal disease: ver abundant in inflammatory conditions affecting the large intestine, more s than in those affections of the small intestine, and especially so in inflammatory conditions of the colon, both acute and chronic.

Jelly-like masses or shreds of mucus, and cases where the stool consists chiefly of mucus, show that the affection is confined to the lowe portion of the colon or that it is located in the rectum.

Long shreds of mucus, frequently resembling false membrane, a often found in catarrh of the large intestine. If the shreds of mucus a intimately mixed with the stool, then we must look for the lesion quite hig up, and if it comes from the small intestine it is usually stained from bil If the lesion is low down the mucus is not intimately mingled with th stool.

White or Light-gray Stools.—These stools usually are of a putty-lik consistency, sometimes like dry balls on a diaper; sometimes they appe like ashes. Usually they are very offensive, consisting principally of fa There is scarcely a trace of bile, or the latter may be absent altogether.

Scybalous Stools.—These are hard, dry, usually round masses in which the intestinal lubricant is absent. These stools are usually accompanied by flatulence. From their stagnation in the colon the gas bacteria cause a chronic distention and enlargement of the abdomen.

Dyspeptic Stool.—The first change noticed in the dyspeptic stool is the increase of fat. Often the stool is quite green and contains small pieces, of yellowish-white color, which vary in size from that of a pinhead to the size of an ordinary pea. Hitherto, from their color, they were supposed to be casein lumps. Wegscheider has taught us that they consist principally of fat. Baginsky has shown that large colonies of bacteria are contained in these lumps of fat. Frequently they are so numerous that it looks as though the stool were composed only of these cheesy lumps. They can be easily differentiated from real casein lumps by their solubility in alcohol and ether.

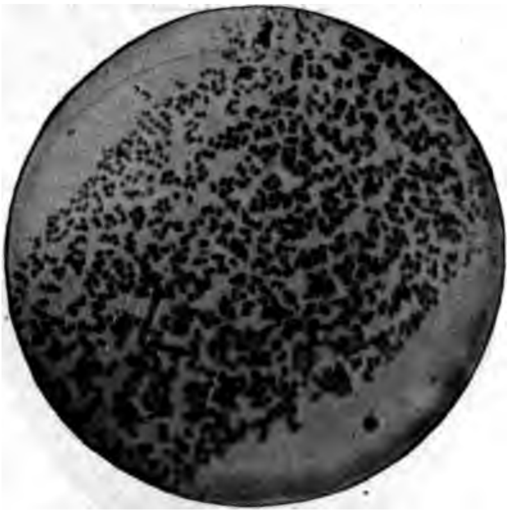

Fig. 63.—Bacterium Coli Commune.

Bacteria of the Intestines.

There are a great many bacteria found in the intestines. These are present in a normal infant, as well as in an infant suffering from a gastrointestinal disorder. A great many of these bacteria are, therefore, nonpathogenic. Miller, who carefully studied the various micro-organisms in the mouth, found that most of them could again be found in the intestinal canal.

Moro describes the bacillus acidophilus, which is a constant inhabitant in both the small and large intestine. It has the property of coagulating cows' milk, but not human milk. The bacillus bifidus communis will chiefly be found in the intestine of a breast-fed infant. It is anaërobic. Th terium coli communis and bacterium lactis aërogenes are largely conc in the formation of lactic acid. The colon bacillus generates indol as The rôle played by bacteria is not yet well understood. It is quite po that, instead of doing harm, some bacteria do good. This is espec noted when all bacteria are destroyed by sterilization, and bacteria-free is fed. Such prolonged feeding may result in scurvy.

DIARRHŒA.[1]

By diarrhœa is meant too frequent stools. This increased perista is usually due to some specific cause. Infants on a liquid diet are m

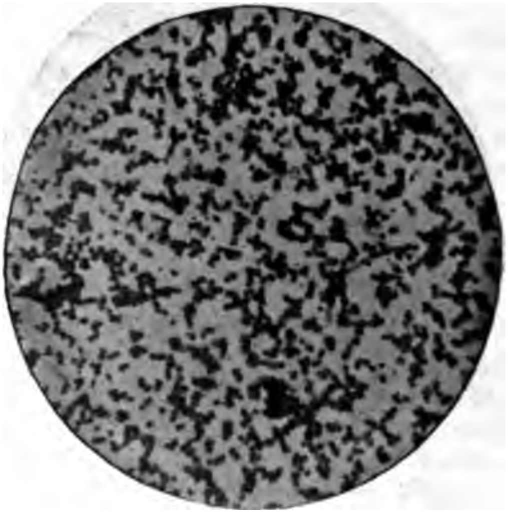

Fig. 64.—Bacterium Lactis Aërogenes.

prone to loose evacuations than older children on a solid or semi-solid Children suffering from rickets or atrophy infantum, or any form of nutrition, are more prone to the development of diarrhœa. The cau the bulk of the cases of diarrhœa seen by me during the last fifteen y in one of the largest dispensaries of New York City, was bottle-fee Out of 1000 cases of diarrhœa 900 were bottle-fed and lived amid hygienic surroundings. In 90 cases the children were breast-fed, but t was a disturbance during lactation. This disturbance was pregn menstruation, tuberculosis, or syphilis in the mother, or prolonged nu with deficient fats and protein.

In 10 cases there was no assignable cause excepting the subnormal dition of the body due to an excess of midsummer heat.

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[1] See also chapter on "Intoxication."

'aminated Milk.—Impurities, such as bacteria, filth, and chemical due to fermentation, can easily cause diarrhœa. In my article on ι in the Intestine," I describe the two most frequent varieties of which are normally found in the intestine. They are the bac-ɔli and the bacterium lactis. These bacteria frequently assume a form under certain conditions. They very often cause diarrhœa. cteria, such as the streptococci, can be introduced in cows' milk. *'d udder in the cow will frequently secrete pus in addition to milk.* lk must necessarily cause trouble when introduced into the in-omach or bowels.

roper Diet for Older Children.—We frequently see people who wise to give their children, *regardless of their age,* a bit of any-ɩm the table. Raw fruits and raw vegetables, cabbage, and pickles regardless of the consequences. In studying the dietetic sins com-y the parents of children in two dispensaries located in different ɔf New York City, I found the following conditions:—

hundred children between the second and sixth years of age tenements apparently healthy; 80 received a taste of beer or a rhisky diluted with water every day. In some families the children as much as a wineglassful and more of beer with each meal. Such ıce is frequently a distinct factor in the causation of diarrhœa.

rous Diarrhœa.—The influence of fright or excitement is the best of diarrhœa due to nervous influence that can be given. When r a nervous influence the fæces contain mucus, and there is usually sive stool. It is a form of exaggerated peristalsis. Chilling the f the body frequently provokes diarrhœa.

rhœa as a Symptom of Disease.—Nature's method of eliminating frequently seen when a diarrhœa commences in the course of an 'ectious disease. Toxic products can best be eliminated by the 'ies, and the intestines are one of the most valuable agents for ng poison from the body. The diarrhœa of typhoid fever, sum-plaint, dysentery, and ileo-colitis have been described in their ɜ chapters.

tment.—Seek the cause and if possible remove the same. If a rror has caused the diarrhœa, then a good dose of castor-oil should In all events a good cleansing should begin the treatment. Mist. ɔdæ in teaspoonful doses can be given several times to cleanse the testinal tract. Several hours after the laxative has been given the ad colon should be flushed with hot water containing a teaspoonful each pint. The temperature of the saline solution should be about

ıuth in 3 to 10-grain doses, repeated every two hours, is our best

℞ Mist. creta .... 2 ounces,
one teaspoonful every two hours, is also valuable.

Diet.—Stop all milk. Give whey and rice water thickened with potato flour or wheat flour. Give the white of egg several times a day; also cocoa and water.

For Thirst.—Give 5 to 10 drops of diluted hydrochloric acid in a tumblerful of boiled water (sterilized). This can be given *ad libitum.*

Diluted phosphoric acid, 20 drops to a tumblerful of sweetened water, is a pleasant drink during fever. It is also stimulating.

The charts on pages 247, 248, and 249 were kindly furnished to me by Dr. William H. Guilfoy, Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, Health Department, City of New York.

INSOLATION (HEAT-STROKE; SUNSTROKE).

This condition is most frequently seen in midsummer. It sometimes occurs in perfectly healthy children who are exposed to the direct rays of the midday sun. I have frequently seen cases of sunstroke in *feeble children* who were playing in the shade. Children with lowered vitality and convalescents from some severe illness, such as diphtheria or pneumonia, are more prone to be affected by intense summer heat.

Pathology.—Intense cerebral hyperæmia and an intense engorgement of the veins throughout the body are the usual lesions seen in this condition.

Symptoms.—A child in apparently good health in midsummer will suddenly show intense fever. The temperature reaches as high as 104° or 105° F. in many instances. There is a corresponding increase in the pulse-rate. The pulse may be as high as 160 or 180. The face is usually flushed. The head is hot. There is a throbbing of the blood-vessels very apparent. The child may be unconscious and muscular twitchings may be noticed. In severe prostration there may be delirium and convulsions.

The pupils are usually contracted, although they may be dilated, and the eyes intensely congested. Sometimes vomiting and diarrhœa may accompany the symptoms above mentioned.

The following illustrates the manner in which heat-stroke occurs in New York City:—

A child will awaken in a normal condition, eat its breakfast and play as usual. After several hours' hard playing and exposure to the sun's rays, the child will be exhausted. If a careless mother or nurse permits the child to continue its exposure to the direct mid-summer heat, then prostration with the above-noted symptoms will be noticed. In some cases brought to my clinic, the head is hot and the hands and feet are cold. If the sunstroke takes place soon after feeding, then violent gastric symptoms usually occur.

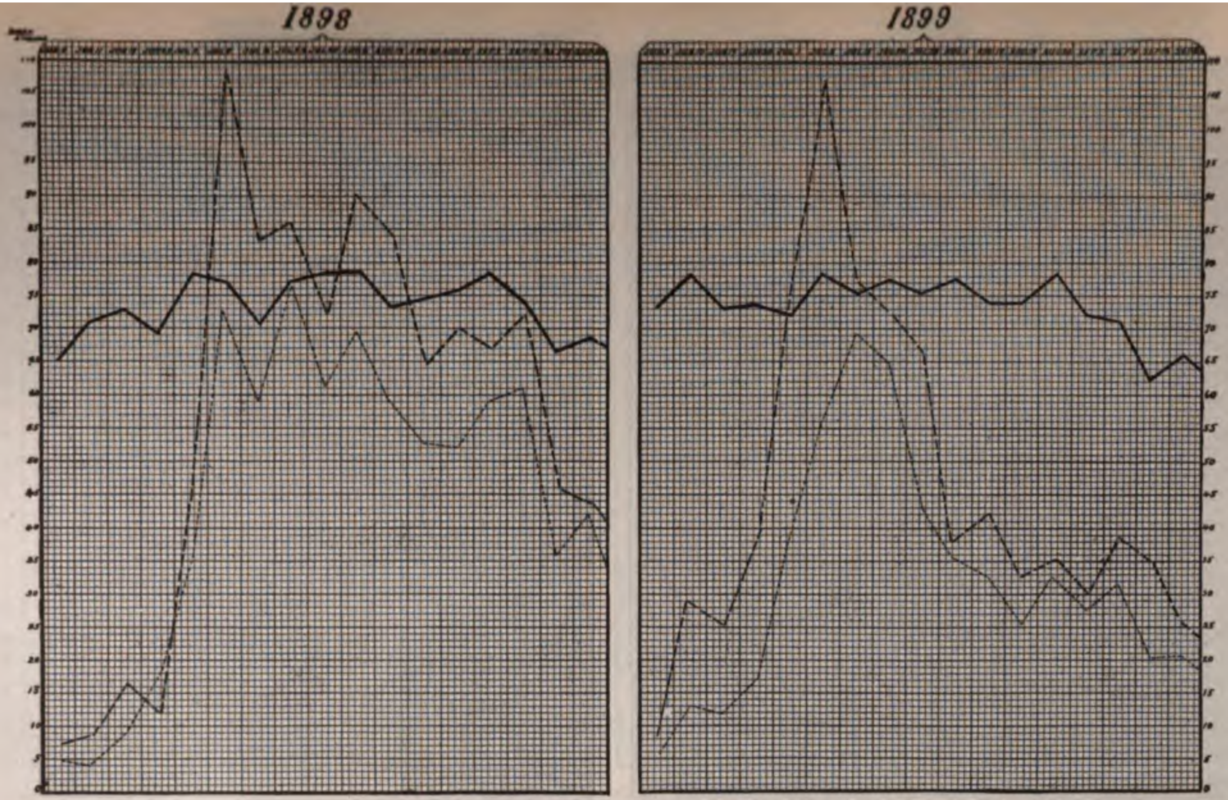

Fig. 65.

·········· Death Rates per 10,000 of population under 5 from Diarrhœas, Borough of Manhattan.
– – – – Death Rates per 10,000 of population under 5 from Diarrhœas, Borough of Brooklyn.
▬▬▬ Mean Weekly Temperature.

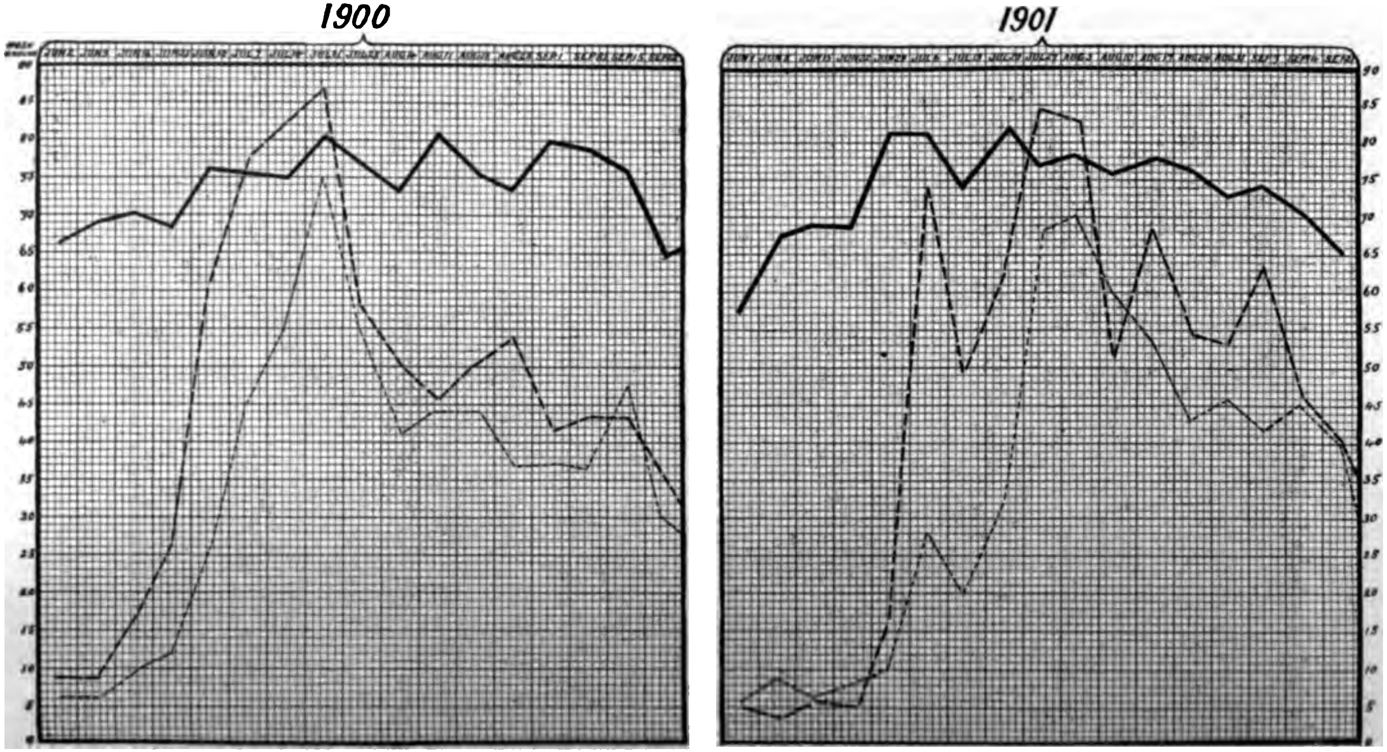

Fig. 60. Death Rates per 10,000 of population under 5 from Diarrhœas, Borough of Manhattan.
Death Rates per 10,000 of population under 5 from Diarrhœas, Borough of Brooklyn.
Mean Weekly Temperature.

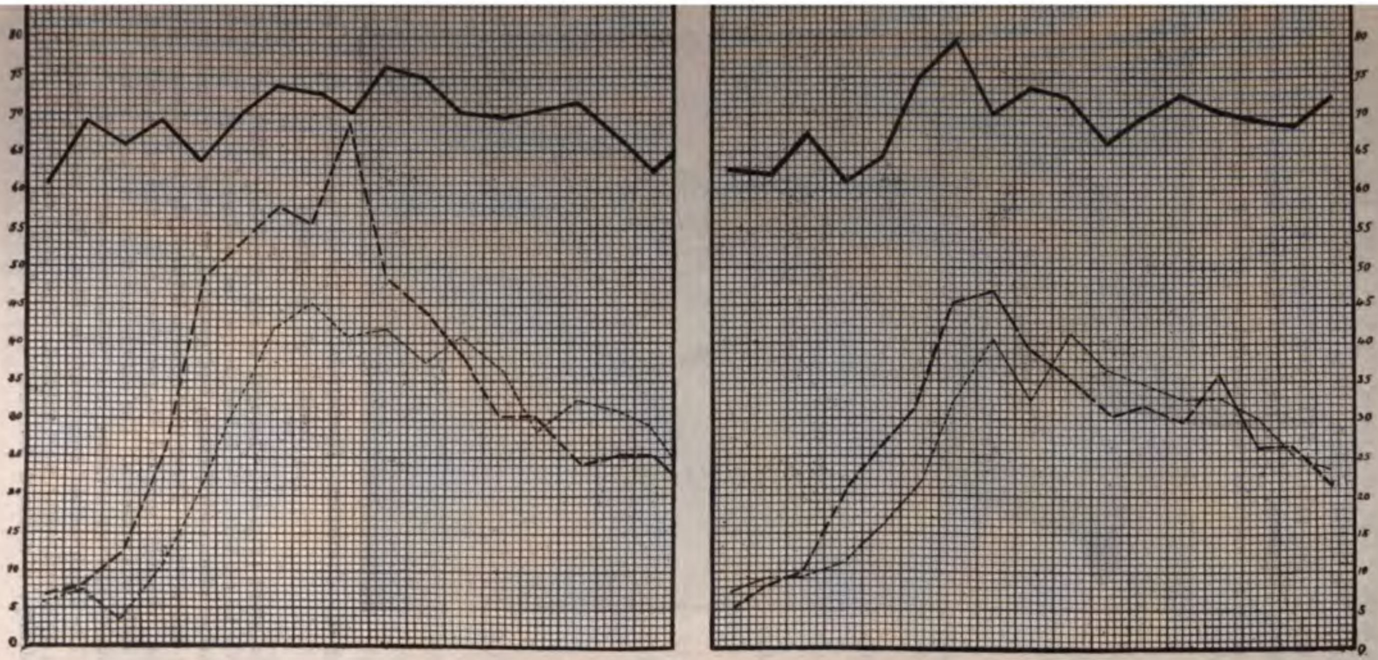

Fig. 67.

…… Death Rates per 10,000 of population under 5 from Diarrhœas, Borough of Manhattan.
— — — Death Rates per 10,000 of population under 5 from Diarrhœas, Borough of Brooklyn.
—— Mean Weekly Temperature.

Prognosis.—The prognosis depends upon the vitality at the time of sunstroke. We must differentiate this condition from meningitis. The suddenness of the attack following exposure to the sun will usually aid in making a diagnosis. The majority of cases seen by me recovered. Occasionally a fatal case was encountered, especially in bottle-fed infants.

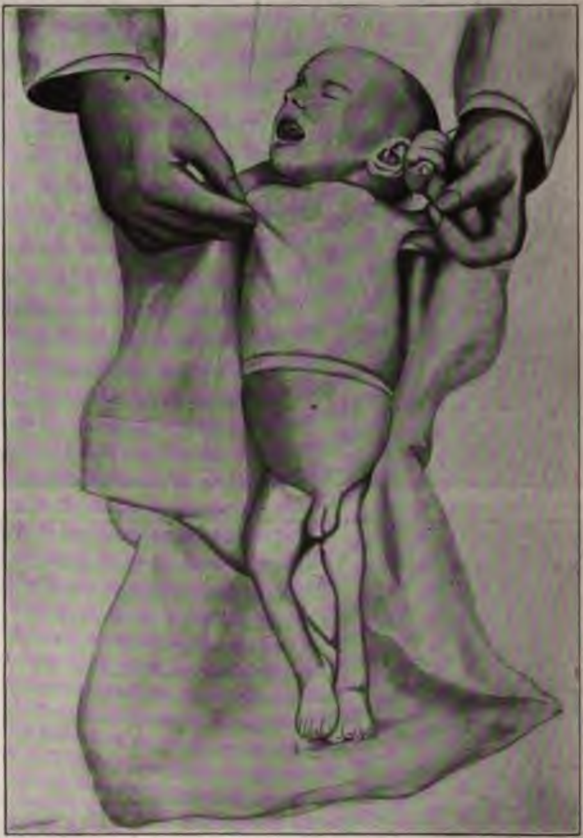

Fig. 68.—Insolation (Heat-stroke). Type of midsummer cases in New York City. (Original.)

This infant (Fig. 68), brought to my clinic July, 1909, weighed 5 pounds 6 ounces. He was a bottle-fed infant, reared on condensed milk. He was nine weeks old. Vomited after each feeding, had greenish, mucous, sour-smelling stools, every half-hour and oftener. There was eczema between the thighs from excoriation and acid stools. The child weighed 6½ pounds at birth, and was a full-term baby.

The child was pulseless. The extremities were cold and covered with a clammy perspiration. The temperature was subnormal—97° F. The fontanel was depressed. The heart sounds were barely audible. The mouth, tongue, and lips were very dry; food and water were refused. Spirits of camphor, 5 drops, was injected hypodermically; a mustard foot-bath was ordered. The child died fifteen minutes later.

sis.—Cholera infantum, marasmus, due to malassimilation of food; im-
to commence with. *Extreme heat* caused heart-failure and general pros-

ment.—A tub-bath, temperature 90° F., gradually decreased to
ration five minutes, is advisable. An ice-bag should be applied
d. If consciousness has been restored, the child should be al-
est; if not, then we can restore the circulation to relieve cerebral
by giving a mustard foot-bath for several minutes until the skin
d. The rectum and colon should be flushed with a hot saline
a temperature of 110° F.; this will stimulate diuresis besides
the bowel. One-drop doses of aromatic spirits of ammonia with
be given every fifteen minutes.

child can swallow then:—

mide of sodium	10 grains
loral hydrate	3 grains

given to a child 5 years old. This can be repeated every hour
lative effect is produced. In some cases (comatose) it may be
o inject per rectum:—

mide of sodium	15 grains
rch water	1 ounce

water should be given by mouth, with several drops of diluted
ic acid. Peptonized milk, thin soups, and broths may be given
hours. Liquid peptonoids can be tried if food is rejected.

DYSENTERY (ILEO-COLITIS).

ower portion of the intestine is frequently the seat of an infection
nic bacteria.

logy.—As this condition frequently follows severe milk infection,
genic lesions are necessarily the same, although in a more ag-
orm. In addition to the hyperæmia of the mucous membrane
be a small hæmorrhage in the mucosa or submucosa. The mucous
is very deeply pigmented, frequently being of a purplish hue.
ry lymph follicles along the colon are swollen. The discharge of
inged with blood, and not infrequently the amœba coli described
or known as the *amœba dysenteriæ,* described by Councilman and
n be found. "It is a unicellular, protoplasmic, motile organism
o 20 micro-millimeters in diameter, and consists of a clear outer
sarc) and a granular inner zone (endosarc), containing a nucleus
more vacuoles." Multiple abscesses are frequently found. "The
begins as a small papule, the upper part of which sloughs off,
grayish-yellow ulcerating surface."

Amœbic Dysentery.[1]—Five cases are reported. The diagnosis was based upon the finding of motile amœbæ containing red blood-corpuscles. The cases were moderate in intensity. The age of the children was 2 to 5 years. Four were boys. They came under observation at the dispensary.

Little fever was present. The stools varied in frequency from four to twenty-four. Only one complained of much pain. In two cases prolapsus recti occurred. No abscess of liver was found. The reaction of the fæces was mostly alkaline. They were offensive, liquid or solid, and accompanied by bloody mucus. The amœba may be found only on repeated examination. If in the passages of a child Charcot-Leyden crystals are found, amœbic dysentery should be considered. The blood picture varied greatly. A leucocytosis (13,800 to 27,000) existed in every case when first examined.

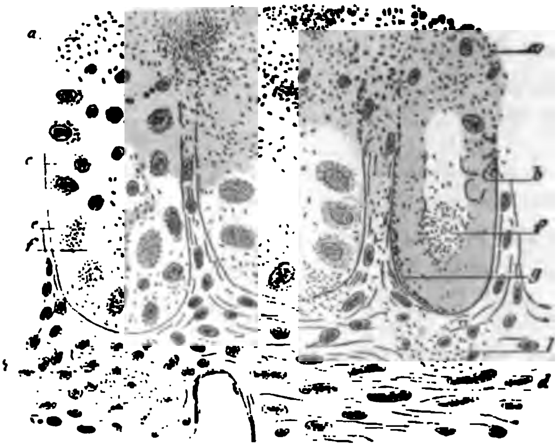

Fig. 69.—Bacillary Diphtheria of the Colon or Diphtheritic Colitis. *a*, Necrotic tissue containing bacilli. *b*, Gland with necrotic epithelium. *d*, Connective tissue. *c*, Degenerated and exfoliated epithelial cells. *f*, Bacilli in the lumen of the gland. *g*, Bacillary deposit beneath the epithelium. *h*, Nests of bacilli in the connective tissue. X 300. (Ziegler.)

Diphtheritic dysentery, sometimes known as the croupous variety, is a catarrhal form of this same condition previously described, in which the infection can be traced to an invasion of the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus. The ulcerations are covered with a pseudo-membrane, and the pathogenic conditions are as previously described.

Bacteriology.[2]—There are two groups of bacilli which are responsible for the development of various types of epidemic dysentery:—

1. The true Shiga group.
2. Group of mannite fermenters.

The latter group is divided into two types:—

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[1] Amberg: Bulletin Johns Hopkins Hospital, December, 1901.

[2] The Journal of Medical Research, vol. xi, No. 2, May, 1904.

(*a*) Fermenting mannite alone in peptone solution.

(*b*) Fermenting maltose and saccharose.

Symptoms.—The attack is usually ushered in with diarrhœa. There is also considerable straining with each stool. At first the stools contain particles of fæces, and as the disease progresses they become more liquid and contain mucus and blood. Some authors describe the stool as containing shreds that resemble the washings of raw meat. The face shows a very anxious expression. There is extreme pallor. The child appears prostrated. The pulse is accelerated and very feeble. The abdomen is distended, especially over the colon. Vomiting is a rare symptom. Unless treatment is rapidly instituted the child will fail in strength and may die. Such children usually sleep with the eyes half open and show evidences of collapse. The rectum may protrude, especially when there is a distinct relaxation of these parts. Cold, clammy perspiration is usually found, especially on the head. The extremities are cold. Convulsions appear in the severer forms of dysentery. In the diphtheritic variety the temperature and pulse resemble a case of true diphtheria. The stool, in addition to mucus and blood, may have particles of pseudo-membrane. Toxæmia can usually be seen by its effect on the heart and pulse. The urine may contain albumin. Where the toxæmia progresses, convulsions may set in and death result from cardiac paralysis.

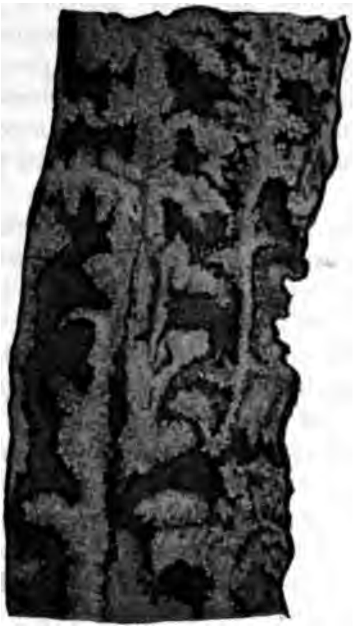

Fig. 70.—Croupous Enteritis, Diphtheritic Colitis, two-thirds natural size. (Langerhans.)

Diagnosis.—The bloody mucus and watery stools seen in this condition, associated with tenesmus, will usually aid in eliminating acute milk infection. In gastro-enteritis and entero-colitis there is usually a greenish, spinach-like stool, or a brown, muddy stool having a very fœtid odor. The stools in dysentery are smaller in quantity. Both the diphtheritic and the amœbic forms of dysentery are rare in children.

Prognosis.—If this disease is epidemic, or if it occurs in children having bad sanitary surroundings, then the prognosis is bad. The duration of an acute attack is usually about five or six days. The prognosis is good when the diarrhœa and blood gradually disappear. The main point to remember is that the heart must be sustained by proper nutrition, and we should try to counteract the toxæmia by proper stimulation.

Treatment.—The same hygienic measures described in the chapter on "Acute Milk Infection" apply equally as well here. Impress the mother or nurse that unless she carries out the directions minutely, the child has little chance of recovery.

Dietetic Treatment.—The dietetic management will consist in leaving out milk. Whey, barley water, rice water, or toast water may be given. Mutton broth thickened with rice may be given to an older child. Whisky and water should be given from the beginning. It is not too much to give 2 to 4 ounces of whisky per day. The physician should order the amount of whisky by telling the mother or nurse to give ½ drachm or more well diluted with barley or rice water, every half-hour.

Coffee is a valuable cardiac stimulant. Champagne may also be given.

Local Treatment.—The physician will be most successful who places his patient in bed, regulates the diet, cleanses the intestinal tract, and relieves the tenesmus by local treatment. The heart should be supported. The strength must be sustained with nutrition and the flushing of the bowel should be performed as soon as possible after a stool is evacuated.

Warm chamomile tea should be used to cleanse the colon and rectum. This should be injected at a temperature of 110° to 115° F., with the aid of a small rubber catheter. This can be followed by an injection of 1 ounce of sterile water containing 2 grains of nitrate of silver. Very bland injections, such as

℞ Raw starch	1 teaspoonful
Chamomile tea	1 quart
Laudanum	10 drops

injected at a temperature of 100° F., will soothe the rectum and frequently relieve tenesmus. I have successfully treated dysentery cases with the following:—

℞ Argentum nitrate	6 grains
Cocoa butter	q. s.

M. Form into twelve suppositories.

℞ Oleoresin terebinthinæ	12 grains
Extract of belladonna	6 grains
Extract of opii aquosa	1 grain
Cocoa butter	q. s.

M. Form into twelve suppositories.
Sig.: Insert alternately q. 3 hours.[1]

Sulpho-carbolate of soda, in doses of 5 to 10 grains, can be used several times a day. Bismuth combined with Dover's powder is frequently valuable. An ice-bag placed on the abdomen in the region of the colon will sometimes do good. Very cool injections of table salt and water are sometimes of value when hot injections are not well borne.

AMŒBIASIS.[2]

That there is an etiological relationship between pellagra and amœbiasis has long been suspected. Clinical observations by Jelks, of Memphis, and many others have demonstrated the probable relationship, because the skin manifestations were similar.

The amœbic infection of the gut is peculiar: "The amœbæ may be encysted or contracted and immotile. The amœbæ may have been present primarily, yet not so at some later time, when the skin and nervous symptoms are present. The endoplasma may contain many dark particles and the morphology of the parasite altered greatly by the limitation of the hyaloplasma. It appears that in this state the infecting organism possesses the power or quality of transmitting some unknown toxin to the nervous centers."

The skin lesions are either a simple staphylococcus pustule or urticarial erythematous manifestations. Other types show an extensive desquamative dermatitis or an œdematous type.

1. Pellagra is not a new disease, nor a disease, in fact, but a series of symptoms-complex, presenting the results of parasitic infection in the gut, with consequent abrasions, inroads, as it were, and either absorption of or the conveyance of toxin-developing bacteria or the toxins themselves into the blood or to the central nervous system, the force of which seems mostly spent upon the cervical and dorsal portion of the cord.

2. The amœbæ seem undoubtedly capable of conveying these toxins or oxin-developing bacteria, and probably are their chief intermediate hosts.

3. Some form of amœbæ has been found in most of the writer's cases, nd usually many of these organisms have lost much of the hyaloplasm, are mmotile or almost so, and contain many dark particles, a fact and condi-

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[1] As the nitrate of silver would oxidize the organic matter contained in the cond formula, the suppositories must be given at intervals of three hours.

[2] I am indebted to the article of Dr. J. L. Jelk's in The Southern Medical ournal, March, 1912, for many valuable points in this article.

tion not so often found in other conditions as in pellagrins, and, therefore, believed to be significant. The writer has never observed the degree of prevalence of this morphological alteration in other cases that is found in those of advanced pellagra with skin and nervous symptoms.

If, in fact, a specific bacterial infection is the cause of the symptoms described as pellagra, the fact must yet remain that abrasions of the mucosa or purveyors of the bacteria must also be sought, and no other organism seems more capable than does the amœba in the light of our present knowledge. I am so impressed with the seeming constancy and great numbers of the small, morphologically altered amœbæ just described that I really believe they are responsible for the conveyance of the pathogenic bacteria or the toxins which produce the serious results and symptoms erroneously named "pellagra."

Intoxication (Toxicosis; Cholera Infantum; Acute Milk Infection).

For many years we have been taught that the ingestion of bacteria in milk causes diarrhœal diseases. Some authors have found one or more million bacteria in 1 cubic centimeter of ordinary milk; other specimens have contained only 50 thousand bacteria in 1 cubic centimeter. In counting these bacteria, the harmless and harmful varieties are not separately considered. In other words, bacteriologists merely consider germs. There are many forms of bacteria which normally inhabit the intestine. That these innocent bacteria assume a virulent form under certain irritated conditions has been suspected. That the introduction of bacteria in food foreign to the intestine develops inflammatory conditions has been suggested, but has never been positively proven. The bacillus of Shiga has been found in many cases of intestinal catarrh with diarrhœa and symptoms of intoxication. There are equally as many cases of the same type in which no Shiga bacillus can be found. One must assume, therefore, that there are other factors equally as important as bacteria causing this condition.

It has been possible to reduce one or more million bacteria in each cubic centimeter of raw milk to 50 thousand bacteria per cubic centimeter by subjecting the milk to steaming at a temperature of 140° F. for ten minutes. We know that the toxins generated by some bacteria are more deadly in their action than the bacteria themselves. Such toxins can withstand a temperature of 300° F. without destruction.

To Finkelstein belongs the credit of having shown that bacteria do not enter into the causation of this disease, but that the faulty assimilation of fat and sugar is responsible for this condition. Finkelstein proves this by relieving the symptoms when fat and sugar are withdrawn from the food and when the protein element is increased. This he does regardless of the presence or absence of bacteria.

tle-fed children, especially among the poorer classes, acute milk
is frequently seen during the summer months. This is due
the chemical or toxic product developed in the milk. The heat
mer rapidly decomposes milk, and large quantities of bacteria
nd generate their toxic products. When such milk is fed to
y show the effect of the toxin very rapidly. Park found that
was first received from the farms it contained from 10,000 to
teria in each cubic centimeter. On the second day the bacteria
reased that there were between 10,000,000 and 30,000,000 per
meter.

er diseases, particularly entero-colitis and cholera infantum, will

g. 71.—A Case of Acute Milk Poisoning Having Vomiting, Diarrhœa,
and Bloody Stools, General Emaciation, Acute Cholera Infantum,
sentery. (Original.)

t as readily in breast-fed children who are improperly managed
-fed children.

logy.—There is extreme emaciation of the entire body affecting
d fat. The fontanel is depressed. The eyes are sunken. The
f the skin is gradually lost; the skin hangs in loose folds. The
nbles an advanced form of tuberculosis. Minute hæmorrhages
associated with intense congestion in the stomach and intestines.
ce of catarrh is everywhere seen. There is an excessive secretion
n the larger intestine; in the colon ulcers will be found.

and Wright describe a general distention of the net-work of the
situated in the mucous membrane of the intestine. The same
is found in the submucosa, in the villi, and between the tubules
of Lieberkühn. "The central portions of the solitary glands
d, or, the softened portions having been discharged, the remains
ds appear as sharply cut ulcers, although the sinuses of the brain

are found distended with blood. Occasionally cerebral anæmia may exist." Meningitis is rare.

Bacteriology.—The enormous material at our command in this country gave the Rockefeller Institute an advantage in studying the pathogenic bacteria in this disease. It was found that the bacillus dysenteriæ (Flexner) is present in very many cases. Other investigators along the same lines have found the bacillus pyocyaneus (Cooper) a probable causative factor in this disease. On the other hand, Finkelstein, Escherich, and Moro believe that the bacillus acidophilus is the causative agent. Other investigators believe the bacillus coli communis or the streptococcus to be the causative agent. Finkelstein and Meyer have shown that milk sugar in food can alone produce intoxication. When a high fat content is present, this naturally aids in the intoxication caused by the sugar.

It is impossible to believe that bacteria *per se* are not at the root of the disease, and yet convincing argument is offered by the German investigators to prove their claim: that the disease is one in which there is a dietetic error resulting in, first, a local; and later, a general systemic disturbance.

Causes.—The etiological factors can be briefly outlined as follows:—

1. Food, improper quantity and quality of the same, be it breast-milk or hand-feeding.

2. The most frequent cause is certainly improper bottle-feeding, wherein food unsuited to the infant's digestive abilities is continued, in spite of Nature's efforts to warn us, as frequently manifested by either vomiting or diarrhœa, or both.

3. Milk from mothers suffering with tuberculosis or syphilis. Pregnant, menstruating, and all anæmic women secrete such poor milk that gastro-enteric derangements are exceedingly common.

4. The influence of the weather on digestion, especially the extreme heat of summer.

Harry G., ten months old, bottle-fed, was brought to me with a history of vomiting, high fever, and diarrhœa. The temperature was 104° F. The stool was green and contained mucus and curds, and had a very fœtid odor. The stools were as frequent as twenty in twenty-four hours. There was a great deal of flatulence the abdomen was distended, and there was constant tenesmus. The mouth was dry, the tongue had a whitish fur coating, and in the mouth small patches of stomatitis could be seen. The tongue protruded constantly and when liquids were given they were taken ravenously. The mother stated that ordinary grocer's milk had been used, and that she believed the milk had turned sour "after a thunder-storm." The diagnosis of acute milk infection was made. The stomach was washed by the use of 1 quart of saline solution. Two drachms of castor oil was ordered and one hour later the rectum and colon were flushed with 1 quart of chamomile tea. All milk was stopped. No food was given for six hours. A bland diet of sweetened rice water and whey was then given in quantities of 4 ounces every two hours. As a stimulant, 15 drops of whisky was given with $^{1}/_{100}$ grain of strychnine every three hours. The child improved, and three days later 1 ounce of milk, with 7 ounces of water, was given every three hours. The milk was gradually increased every and the rice water decreased. The child recovered.

Symptoms.—The two cardinal symptoms are (*a*) vomiting, (*b*) diarrhœa. In some instances the first evidence of this infection will be fever. The temperature may be as high as 103° to 105° F. There will be intense thirst. There is no appetite. The infant will refuse its bottle, and if forced to take it will immediately throw it off. Bile, mucus, and sour-smelling curd form the bulk of the vomit. The abdomen is usually distended. There is a great deal of flatulence. The stool is watery and greenish in color, with a very foul odor. When the diarrhœa continues for several days, the temperature may become subnormal and the infant's forehead may be covered with a cold, clammy perspiration. The extremities are usually cold. The child will sink very rapidly, owing to the amount of exhaustion. The body is constantly drained by the diarrhœa. Unless the clinical picture is recognized and proper treatment instituted, the infant may sink into a coma and have convulsions, followed by death.

The following case illustrates acute milk poisoning in an infant less than 1 year old. The infant was bottle-fed and received the food daily, modified, from a milk laboratory. This food seemed to agree until the time of the present illness. The child was under the treatment of Dr. John Logan and Dr. J. Martinson, both of New York. The case was seen by me in consultation after several days' illness. The infant was vomiting and had greenish, mucous stools. There was severe tenesmus. The infant showed severe prostration and was apparently comatose. The fontanel was sunken. The pulse was very feeble. The circulation was poor and the extremities cold. As no food was retained, in addition to the amount of toxin in the circulation, the heart's action became weaker and weaker. It was very difficult to rouse this child. In spite of high saline colon injections, the child died of exhaustion associated with general toxæmia.

Diagnosis.—The diagnosis of this condition is extremely easy. It is usually aided by the clinical history. The disease usually occurs in summer, although milk poisoning can take place during any time of the year.

Differential Diagnosis.—Sunstroke may sometimes be confounded with cholera infantum, but the continued diarrhœa in cholera infantum, and its history, should aid in eliminating this condition as a factor. Asiatic cholera shows symptoms similar to cholera infantum. The presence of the comma bacillus in the stools will establish the presence of Asiatic cholera.

An important point to remember is that very many diseases have symptoms resembling cholera infantum and must be carefully differentiated; for example, typhoid fever occurring in midsummer may simulate this disease and give rise to symptoms which greatly resemble cholera infantum. We occasionally see children having diarrhœa, vomiting, and fever in whom on palpation a tenderness in the ileo-cæcal region can be palpated. Such cases may have appendicitis and still show all the symptoms of cholera infantum.

The blood examination will aid in establishing the diagnosis of appendicitis. In the latter condition we have a marked leucocytosis and a high polynuclear percentage.

The prognosis depends on the infant, its surroundings and th of infection, and the length of illness. An infant having good vit being given a careful diet and stimulation with proper hygienic t certainly has more chance than one left in the city amid poor s ings with faulty hygiene.

Hygienic Treatment.—Before feeding is considered we must infant into the best possible surroundings, a clean room, clean line bed; in fact, all sanitary conditions must be perfect. If possible t should be placed on the roof of a house in the city, or out-of-doo country, both day and night. To place a case out-of-doors durin is not sufficient. *If sea air is obtainable, it is best to remove th the seashore, or at least insist on daily excursions.* Cold bathing, o in cold or lukewarm water, to which some sea salt has been a proven beneficial.

Dietetic Treatment.—After the hygienic conditions are satisfa tention should be directed to the food. Knowing that this disease by faulty feeding, the most important and therapeutic indicati feeding. Liberal quantities of water sweetened with ½ grain of s to the pint should be given. Skimmed milk, or diluted skimmed junket made with skimmed milk is the best food for this condition. milk made from the lactic acid bacillus and skimmed milk sho the bulk of the diet. Rice or barley water sweetened with saccha be useful in controlling the diarrhœa. The intervals of feeding from three to four hours. The quantity should be reduced. If t had been getting 6- or 8- ounce feedings, the quantity should be r 4 or 6 ounces at one feeding. Lime water may be given liberall teaspoonfuls in one hour. Weak, cold tea may be given *ad libitun*

If the infant is breast-fed discontinue the breast at least tw hours. If the acute symptoms of vomiting and diarrhœa have bee by appropriate treatment, then the breast may be permitted once or eight hours, the alternate feeding to consist of rice or bar sweetened with saccharine. In other words, we must return gra milk feeding. If acute symptoms return when the breast-milk is gi it is a question as to whether or no the breast should be entirely

Antipyretic Measures.—Cold applications to the head and a over the fontanel, cold towels changed every fifteen or thirty min the abdomen, will tone up the nervous system in addition to red temperature. I am a decided opponent to antipyretic drugs, and antipyrin or phenacetine, but invariably resort to hydropathic me the reduction of the temperature. Sponging of the body with al water is very grateful and refreshing, besides a good antipyretic If cyanosis and cold extremities exist, then it is wise to reso mustard baths to stimulate the circulation.

Drug Treatment.—The tendency to constipation following a dose of castor-oil makes it a valuable remedy in all forms of diarrhœa. Bismuth is the sovereign remedy; I have used the subcarbonate, subnitrate, salicylate, and betanaphthol bismuth, and find the latter an extremely valuable preparation. In doses of 2 to 5 grains every few hours, mixed with a little boiled water, it not only agrees very well with children, but seems to exert a healing effect in that form of bacillary diarrhœa which is met with in the acute catarrhal gastro-enteritis.

Salol in doses of 1, 2, and 3 grains, for each year respectively, is another valuable remedy; so also is resorcin, in doses of 1/4 to 1 grain for a child 1 year old, three or four times a day. It is advisable not to add sugar for sweetening, but only glycerine, the latter, however, in very small quantities, as it has a tendency to loosen the bowels.

Tannalbin and tannigen in doses of from 1 to 10 grains seem to act well in some cases, poorly in others, but are well worth trying in those desperate cases in which we change the drugs, if they are ineffectual.

Hypodermic Medication.—In forms of collapse, where constant diarrhœa has drained the system, it is a good plan when the extremities are cold to give hypodermic injections of 10 to 20 drops of whisky. Sulphuric ether can also be administered hypodermically in the same dose as whisky. An intravenous injection of 1 pint of normal saline solution containing a drachm of adrenaline solution 1:2000 may be given. Another valuable stimulant is musk; 2 to 3 drops of tincture of musk administered hypodermically every hour will frequently rouse the circulation.

When this form of treatment proves unsuccessful, and the condition of collapse continues, then a good plan is to resort to *hypodermoclysis.* This consists of introducing a long aspirating needle (previously sterilized by boiling) into the loose connective tissue of the abdomen, and allowing several ounces of the normal saline solution, containing about 7½ grains of table salt to a pint of water, temperature 100° F., to flow in subcutaneously. It is remarkable to note how much liquid can be introduced in his manner, and some of the most desperate cases of collapse will respond ery rapidly. I have seen children who previous to this injection were ulseless suddenly brighten up, and within a few minutes show a distinct dial pulse. Too much care cannot be bestowed on the sterilization of ery part of the apparatus, and the absolute cleanliness of the water to be ed for this purpose.

Rectal and Colon Flushing.—It is advisable to irrigate the colon and turn by placing the child on its left side, introducing a flexible rubber e *anointed* with carbolized vaseline. Having passed the external sphinc- , I invariably allow the water to flow into the rectum in order to balloon same, and then continue to push the tube beyond the rectum into the on. A little difficulty is sometimes encountered, owing to the spasmodic contraction of the muscles, but if we wait a short time, using a litt patience, the tube can easily be pushed into the colon. The method pur sued is the same as described previously in irrigating the stomach, exceptin that we do not seek to syphon off the contents of the bowels, but rather allo a pint or a quart of the warm saline solution to flush the bowels, and i this manner wash away as much of the offending *débris* as exists within t bowels. I have frequently used cold water, but I find much greater bene from the use of a warm solution of the temperature of 105° F.

Some of our cases require irrigation once in twenty-four hours for o week, and others again are so greatly improved after one rectal washing th it is not necessary to resort to it again.

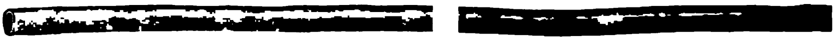

Fig. 72.—Exact Size of Catheter Used for Irrigating a Very Young Infant.

Starch injections, made by adding 2 tablespoonfuls of the ordina starch to a quart of warm water of a temperature of 105° F., may be give They are very advantageous, as the colon changes starch into dextri which is easily absorbed. Thus not only does the latter cleanse, but it also nutritious. Large quantities of saline solution can be introduc into the circulation by means of colon washing, thus adding to the volu of the blood. I therefore lay great stress on this form of treatment, one of the most valuable for this depleting condition. Thromboses c frequently be avoided by these injections.

When severe tenesmus exists, painting of the lower end of the rectu with a 2 per cent. solution of cocaine is frequently very advantageous. Pr lapse of the rectum and anus can frequently be prevented by applying strip of zinc oxide plaster from one buttock tightly to the other, so that t buttocks will support the bowel and mechanically prevent its protrusion.

SUMMER DIARRHEA.

In this condition we have a gastro-intestinal disorder due to the toxi generated from the bacteria in milk. This usually occurs during the su mer months, when there is great humidity in the air. The symptoms a not so severe as those seen in the acute form of milk infection. It is usual met with among the poorer classes, who buy a cheap milk which usual contains millions of bacteria. Victor Vaughn, of Ann Arbor, Mich., in letter to me, stated that although it is possible to destroy all bacteria repeated and continued sterilization, he found it impossible to destroy t toxins generated in milk even though the temperature was raised to 300°

Cause of Infant Mortality.—The weeds eaten by cows in their summ pastures are responsible for many cases of gastro-intestinal disease. Ma of these weeds are poisonous and their juices pass into the milk. In support of this theory Hauser gives the statistics of mortality in a number of districts in his experience, classifying them by the soil and the weeds that grow by preference on certain soils.

Bacteriology.—Bacteriological[1] investigation of summer diarrhœa commenced when Escherich, in 1886, published his work on the intestinal bacteria of infants and their relation to the physiology of digestion. Lesage, Hayem, and Baginsky contributed further researches, but the most important and exhaustive researches were made by Booker from 1886 to 1897. As the result of these he called attention to three principal forms of summer diarrhœa, based on a correspondence of their clinical, anatomical, and bacteriological features: (1) dyspeptic or non-inflammatory diarrhœa, in which the obligatory milk-fæces bacteria are found, chiefly the bacillus coli communis, the bacillus lactis aërogenes appearing in smaller numbers; (2) streptococcus gastro-enteritis, in which there is a general infection and ulceration of the intestine, with streptococci as the predominating forms, some bacilli being present as well; (3) bacillary gastro-enteritis characterized by a general toxic condition with less intestinal inflammation, and the presence in the stool of several varieties of bacilli, the proteus vulgaris being the most common.

Escherich studied the streptococcus cases more closely (1897-1899) and found the cocci numerous and in almost pure culture in the stools in acute, severe cases, while it was possible to isolate them from the urine and the blood during life and from the viscera after death. Clinically, the symptoms vary much in the mild and the severe cases; the stools may be watery and contain much pus and blood. Staphylococci have also been found in diarrhœal stools, but much less frequently than streptococci. Later Escherich described cases of dysentery due to a virulent colon bacillus. Valagussa found a bacillus belonging to the colon group and identical with that isolated by Celli and Fiocca from cases in Italy and Egypt. In 1898 Shiga, in Japan, described the bacillus dysenteriæ, an organism more nearly related to the typhoid than to the colon group, and Flexner found the same bacillus in one form of acute dysentery studied in Manila. Both Celli and Escherich tried to identify the bacillus they described with that of Shiga. The bacillus pyocyaneus has also been found in the stools of cases of epidemic infantile dysentery. It is evident, then, that no specific bacterium of gastro-enteritis has been found; there is one form in which the streptococcus is the predominating organism, and the bacillus dysenteriæ may possibly be proved to be the cause of epidemic dysentery both in children and in adults.

Pathology.—Inflammatory lesions and ulcerations can be seen in the colon. It is rare to find the duodenum and jejunum involved. The microscopical findings of the stool show numerous bacteria, epithelial cells, d tritus, and occasionally blood. Sometimes particles of food are also seen.

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[1] An editorial in Archives of Pediatrics, August, 1901.

Symptoms.—Vomiting and diarrhœa as in the acute form are the mai symptoms. If an infant has just recovered from an acute milk infectio and is placed on milk feeding too soon, a relapse frequently occurs, whic is a subacute infection. The stools are greenish and resemble those de scribed in the acute form. There is a loss of appetite, a coated tongue, an the temperature ranges between 101° and 105° F.; at times the tempera ture may be normal or subnormal. The infant does not want to be dis turbed, and is very irritable. The irritation and tenesmus accompanyin this diarrhœa usually cause the rectum to prolapse, and from the constan discharges of the bowel the anus and buttocks are excoriated. An eczem atous eruption frequently is seen between the thighs. Local infection o the skin and lymphatics, by the presence of the pyogenic bacteria, some times causes furuncles.

Diagnosis.—This is usually made when the history and symptoms a carefully noted. It is much milder than cholera infantum. The tempera ture is lower, the vomiting less, and the prostration not so marked.

Jonah W., seven months old, twin baby, bottle-fed, had been constipated si birth. There was a slight cough. The child had beaded ribs, craniotabes, and bal ness of the occiput. Since one month he had vomiting and diarrhœa. This h improved and disappeared entirely. The child was given milk, and ten days aft the milk diet was commenced the symptoms of vomiting and diarrhœa again appear but in a milder form. Several furuncles were found on his scalp. Owing to t intolerance of milk, whey was given in the same quantity and frequency as the m was formerly given. Rice water, barley water, and thickened pea soup were allow Toast water was given for thirst. Cocoa was also given without milk. The co was made with rice water, in the following proportions:—

℞ Cocoa	1 drachm
Rice water	8 ounces
Saccharine	¼ grain

Scald about five minutes.

A large dose of castor oil followed by a 2-grain dose of tannopine every t hours was given. A high saline injection, 1 quart, temperature 115° F., was orde to cleanse the rectum and colon; also for its stimulating effect.

The diagnosis of subacute milk infection, congenital syphilis, and furunculo was made. The case recovered.

Prognosis and Complications.—This depends on the condition of t child. If there is a complication such as nephritis present, then the pro nosis is worse than if uncomplicated. If an infant can be *removed to t seashore from unsanitary surroundings* and proper food given, the pro nosis is good.

Treatment.—Two points to be considered in this condition are: Fir *stop all milk* for at least one week and give the stomach and bowels absolu rest. Second, *cleanse the stomach and bowels* of all offending *débris* which may have caused this trouble. Such cases should be put on a light, nutritious diet.

The golden rule is to give the stomach and bowels absolute rest in both quality and quantity of food. The feeding interval should be longer and the amount of food reduced.

In substituting other forms of feeding, *pro tempore,* we invariably do so at the expense of body weight. It will always be noted that children deprived of milk will lose weight unless care is taken to substitute a proper nutritious food. The body will lose to such an extent that atrophy may frequently follow.

Formula for Weak Infants in Substitute Feeding.—When vomiting and diarrhœa persist give either:—

Barley water	4 ounces
Rice water	4 ounces
Oatmeal water	4 ounces

Or:—

Whey	4 ounces

Feed every two or three hours. Add ½ of yolk of egg to each feeding.

If fermentation exists—colic, greenish stools, and eructations—use saccharine, ½ grain, instead of sugar for sweetening.

The liquid culture of lactic acid bacillus, or the lactic acid tablets, have served me very well in acute enterocolitis, and especially to control fermentation and colic caused by intestinal toxic bacteria. The liquid culture in drachm doses, repeated every three or four hours, is non-toxic. Lactic acid tablets, one or two, may be given several times a day regardless of the age of the child.

Medicinal Treatment.—A dose of castor-oil should be given at the beginning of the treatment, first to cleanse the gastro-intestinal tract, and secondly, for its constipating after-effect. Rhubarb and soda mixture in doses of one-half teaspoonful is valuable after the castor-oil has been given. The treatment described in the article on "Intoxication" should be carried out as well in this condition. The successful outcome of the case depends on proper rest, careful stimulation, and a thorough cleansing, aided by a decided change of air, to the seashore or to the mountains. Milk should not be given until all conditions appear normal. Essence of caroid in teaspoonful doses, every three hours, is serviceable. Powdered caroid combined with charcoal, in doses of 3 grains each, repeated several times a day, is very valuable.

Carbolic acid is extolled by some physicians with large experience in infantile diseases. S. Henry Dessau strongly advises a 1 per cent. solution of carbolic acid as an intestinal corrective when fermentation exists. He has not seen any toxic symptoms from its use. I can fully indorse his statement and usually advise watching the urine during the administration of carbolized water. A teaspoonful of a 1 per cent. solution, sweetened with saccharine, can be given three or more times a day. If no effect is noticed in twenty-four hours, then 1½ or 2 teaspoonfuls can be given at each dose. I have also used creosote water, 1 per cent. solution, in the same doses as carbolized water with excellent results.[1]

Constipation and Chronic Constipation.

The bowels of an infant during the nursing period should have one or two evacuations daily. Some children will be quite normal with one evacuation daily. Older children who partake of solid food suffer more frequently with constipation. There are decided peculiarities noted in children with reference to the movements of the bowels. One child will enjoy good health, have a good appetite, and will gain in weight with three or four movements of the bowels daily. Another child in equally good health will have but one movement daily. These differences or peculiarities must be taken into consideration before definitely maintaining that our patient is really constipated.

The colon ascendens being very short, the surplus of length, particularly as the transverse colon also is not long, belongs to the descending colon, and especially to the sigmoid flexure. Drandt found it between 8 and 24 centimeters in length, averaging from 14 to 20 centimeters. Jacobi saw a case in which it was 30 centimeters long.

As the pelvis is very narrow, the great length of the lower part of the large intestine is the cause of multiple flexures, instead of the single sigmoid flexure of the adult. Thus it is that, now and then, two or even three flexures are found, and to such an extent that one of them may be found to extend as far as the right side of the pelvis. Cruveilhier and Sappey speak of this position of the lower part of the intestine in the right side of the pelvis as an anomaly. Huguier finds it on the right side of the body in the majority of cases. Others only occasionally, although they admit the great length of the sigmoid flexure. In common with Huguier, who even proposes to operate for artificial anus in the right side, Jacobi found one of the flexures on the right side many times.

The great length of the large intestine and the multiplicity of its flexures are of great functional importance. At all events, they retard the movement of the intestinal content, facilitate the absorption of fluids, and thus the fæces are rendered solid. When this length is developed to an unusual extent, constipation is the natural result.

Records of *post-mortem* observations made by Dr. T. C. Martin[2] prove

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[1] See chapter on "Decomposition" for general treatment of Summer Diarrhœa.

[2] "A Study of the Difficulties of Defecation in Infants," by Dr. T. C. Martin, read at the forty-eighth annual meeting of the American Medical Association, June 4, 1897.

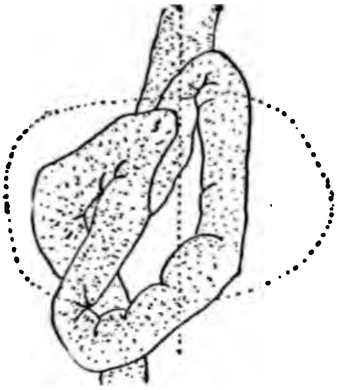

Fig. 73.—Ascending Position.

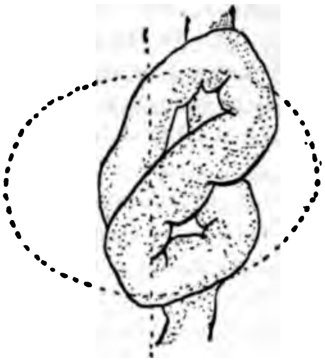

Fig. 74.—Ascending Position.

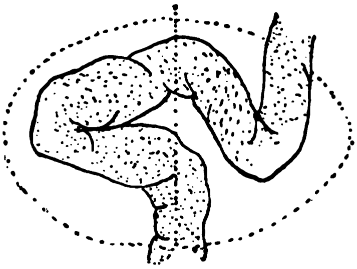

Fig. 75.—Transverse Position.

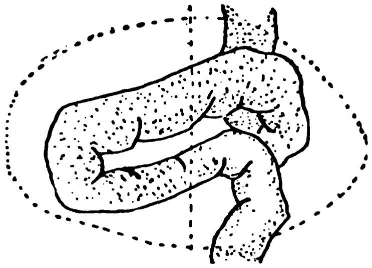

Fig. 76.—Transverse Position.

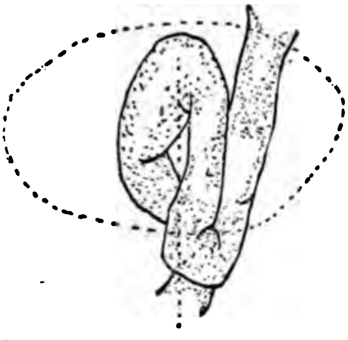

Fig. 77.—Descending Position.

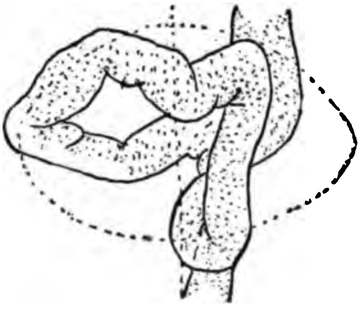

Fig. 78.—Descending Position.

Illustrations of the various types of abnormality of the sigmoid flexure, which are the source of habitual constipation in infants. (After Marfan and Neter.)

posed, it may be necessary to use a catheter inserted between six eight inches into the colon. If we inject about 8 ounces of w water and ½ teaspoonful of the inspissated ox-gall into the colon, will have excellent results. Owing to the irritating nature of the ox-gall, use should be restricted to fever, or when the child is very ill, and we at a rapid evacuation of the colon and rectum.

Drug Treatment.—No one should expect to cure a constipation by t use of drugs alone. There are so many factors which must be conside that drugs form but one part of the treatment.

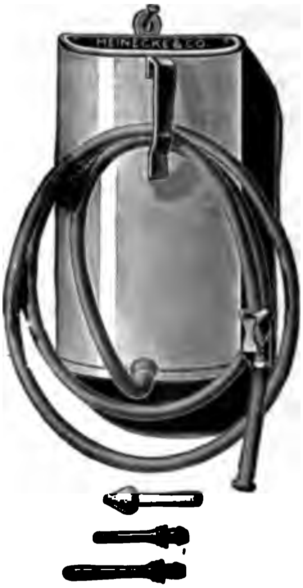

Fig. 80.—Irrigator, with Tube Attached and Hard-rubber Points.

For older children, a teaspoonful of maltine with cascara sagrada t in the morning, once only, is an excellent laxative. When a large qua of starchy food is fed, resulting in an excess of acid, calcined mag should be given. In rachitic and general atonic conditions ½ to 1 spoonful of olive-oil or codliver-oil may be ordered three times a or aromatic albolene, 1 teaspoonful in the morning as a laxative.

Dietetic Treatment.—For a very young infant, ½ tea-spoonf malt extract, or 1 teaspoonful of Loeflund's malt soup, may be a to each feeding. In estimating the required dose of malt soup it is in tant to supervise daily the frequency and character of the movem Individual peculiarities must be considered. One infant will have a cellent result from 1 teaspoonful added to the morning feeding, wh other infants will require the same dose added to every feeding. Mi

1 teaspoonful given in the morning, to bottle-fed infants, dur-
rst half-year, is an excellent corrective. The method of heating
the source of the milk supply, and the quantity of water given
; are all factors to be considered when dealing with an infant suf-
m constipation. Instead of using plain water as a diluent of the
oatmeal water, if constipation persists. Sometimes diluting the
a 5 per cent. solution of sugar of milk will relieve this condition.
nfants over 1 year a small saucer of oatmeal porridge containing
of butter may be tried. A teaspoonful of sugar of milk may be
me feeding.

ust be remembered that bread, potato, macaroni, and most of the
ate foods have a tendency to constipate. Prunes stewed to a jelly
and water, baked apple, apple sauce, oranges, grapes, and grape
ave a laxative tendency. When the casein of milk is altered by the
l bacillus into a casein lactate it has a laxative tendency. All

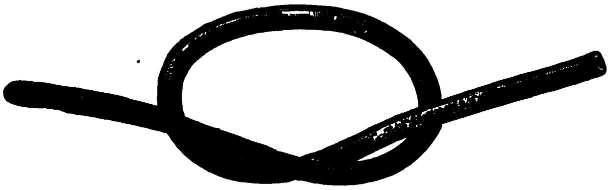

Fig. 81.—Soft-rubber Rectal Tube for Irrigating the Colon.

l milks and buttermilks loosen the bowels. One or 2 ounces
ted milks may be given; large quantities produce colic.

cise.—What massage is for a young infant, exercise is for an older
hus, it is apparent that atonic conditions can best be relieved by
; the dietetic and medicinal treatment with out-of-door exercise.
should be permitted to romp about and walk and play out of doors,
o a point approaching fatigue. Older children will find bicycle
r horseback riding decidedly beneficial. It is important, however,
e the amount of such exercise, and thus it is the physician's duty
e mother or nurse just how *long a child should be permitted to*
It would seem that one-half hour twice a day is ample to arrive
ial results. Overindulgence in such sports will frequently result in
nd produce heart strain. In cardiac lesions, in asthmatic condi-
hildren suffer with whooping-cough, and in tuberculous conditions,
cises must not be allowed.

age.—Continued kneading of the abdomen with the aid of vase-
l will be found serviceable, and, if properly done, will provoke an
the bowel. Thus it is that rubbing the abdomen with castor-oil
ently been recommended in the treatment of constipation; the

effect supposed to be due to the castor-oil is, in reality, due to the massage, and to nothing else. When vibratory massage is used, it should be continued from five to ten minutes every day for one month. This will certainly aid and stimulate peristalsis, and ultimately tone the muscles and cure the constipation.

The hands are gently placed on the right side of the abdomen at about the ileo-cæcal region. Gentle pressure should be made; otherwise, the abdominal muscles will be tense. Commence each stroke of the massage with gentle pressure and utilize each inspiration for firmer and firmer pressure. The same method of palpation which is employed for the diagnosis of a tumor in the deep tissues should be employed. After firm pressure has been made, we can then gradually massage by a rotary movement, first, the ascending colon, continue over the transverse colon, and finally over the descending colon and rectum. Hardened scybala can frequently be felt in the region of the cæcum and can be propelled by this mechanical treatment through the various portions of the colon to the rectum.

Massage from five to ten minutes morning and evening may be continued several weeks. If improvement is noted, then less frequent treatment is required. To be successful, several months of treatment may be necessary in obstinate cases. We must persist in stimulating the peristaltic waves regularly and not be disappointed if immediate results are not secured. My plan has always been to inform the parents that I do not expect any success in a chronic constipation which has persisted for months or years, until six months or more have passed.

Electricity.—This is very valuable to stimulate peristalsis. The faradic, galvanic, or static current can be used. For the general practitioner the use of the galvanic current, five to ten cells, is sufficient. The negative pole (cathode) should be applied in the rectum, and the positive pole, which produces peristaltic waves, should be applied over the ascending, descending, and transverse colon. Local contractions result from the negative pole. A gentle faradic current applied over the spine and the abdomen will answer if used for several minutes in the absence of the galvanic current. Galvanic electricity should be used every day; frequently months are required to insure a cure, in conjunction with the medicinal and dietetic treatment.

HIRSCHSPRUNG'S DISEASE (DILATATION OF THE COLON; MEGACOLON).

Dilatation of the colon and hypertrophy of the colon may be due to muscular weakness or a partial defect in the muscles of the lower portion of the large intestine. When such condition exists there is a stagnation of fæcal matter, and we have the usual products of fermentation and decom-

The latter will give rise to considerable flatulence and by reason
uscular weakness of the intestinal walls there results a dilatation
nains permanent.

e are two prominent symptoms characteristic of this disease: first,
constipation, in some cases extending over many days; second,
bdominal distention.

e of these cases by reason of the stagnation of fæcal matter will
of appetite, marked irritability, and insomnia. The urine usually
indican.

diagnosis depends on whether or not the condition can be traced
arly infancy. It is important to differentiate this disease from
umor, cirrhosis of the liver, or abdominal cysts. The diagnosis
rave if colitis ends in an ulcerative process.

treatment consists in abdominal massage and mild, stimulating
. It is important to correct the stagnation of fæcal matter by
ections of soap water. Surgical aid, such as resection of the intes-
be demanded in the severer forms of the disease. An artificial
been suggested; this must be considered, however, as a temporary
ly.

TESTINAL COLIC (INTESTINAL NEURALGIA; ENTERALGIA).

stinal colic consists of pain which is paroxysmal in character,
the bowel, and without evidence of inflammation.

ptoms.—Colic is one of the most frequent causes of crying in
They not only cry loudly, but will *suddenly shriek*, and when
ep will awaken with a sudden start, and cry loudly. The legs are
exed or they will move their legs back and forth, or up and down.
seem to bend the body on itself. These attacks are usually asso-
th constipation; hence, it is a good plan, when the child is rest-
utters a painful cry, to see if the bowels have moved. It is well
at this colic may be as well associated with diarrhœa. The origin
lic is certainly the feeding. When dyspeptic conditions, arising
ligested particles of food in the bowel, exist, then fermentation,
in gas formation, is the result.

is frequently, but incorrectly, known by the terms of "meteoris-
"tympanites," but in the latter conditions the abdomen is greatly
, and there is a permanent enlargement of it. Borborygmus
g sounds) can usually be made out, if the ear is applied to the
. The vast majority of cases of colic have their seat in the
and can be relieved very quickly.

es.—Worms (ascarides) have been known to cause colic. When
general loss of tone on the part of the muscular layers in the walls
testine, colic will frequently result. Jacobi believes that colic can

be caused by chronic peritonitis resulting in adhesions or local cha the walls of the intestine that will produce local contractions or dila

Excess of Sugar.—When colic is caused by an excess of suga will be considerable eructations of gas, and, frequently, small quant food will be regurgitated.

The stools, when an excess of sugar is given, are thin and g smell very acid, and usually produce a reddened excoriation of the b around the anus.

When children show a tendency to the development of gas an constant recurring colic, my plan is to discontinue the use of suga such time as this fermentation is absent. To sweeten the food I us saccharine tablets, 1 grain being ample to sweeten 1 pint of food. there is a tendency to constipation, it is possible not only to swee food, but also to modify this constipation by adding a teaspoonful c extract to each bottle. One-half teaspoonful of calcined magnesia a each bottle of food will also relieve constipation.

Excess of Protein.—A careful observation of the stools woul show whether the albuminoids are in excess, for they are usually in the form of curds. This condition is usually associated with c tion, and the indication would be to cut down the quantity of administered.

Undigested curds due to excess of protein and excessive fat frequent cause of colic. Irregular feeding, too frequent or over- are the commoner causes. The majority of cases of colic are seen ir fed babies. This is usually due to milk which is too acid or sup milk, as in prolonged sterilization. In the latter manner of treati the casein is rendered very difficult to digest, and frequently re intestinal fermentation, causing colic.

Colic in Breast-fed Babies.—If colostrum continues and the m not assume normal conditions, colic may result. Colic is frequen during menstruation of nursing women. Pregnancy occurring dur tation usually causes colic.

Differential Diagnosis.—We must be extremely careful to excl pain of intussusception, the pain from gall-stones, the pain of appe or the pain of a strangulated hernia. The absence of fever, the di ance of the symptoms by the regulation of the diet, the flushing colon to remove the offending cheesy *débris*, will materially aid in s ening the diagnosis. Sudden cry frequently denotes earache. In the ears should be examined in all febrile conditions.

Infant J., eleven months old, bottle-fed, cried and suffered with p one to two hours after taking his feeding. The temperature was 101° F higher. The infant would scream for a few minutes at a time, then expel f rectum, and be apparently relieved. He would be cheerful and play for time, when another paroxysm of pain would come on and start him screami

until flatus was expelled. Relief was immediately given when the rectum and colon were flushed with warm water temperature 105° F. to which several ounces of glycerine had been added. Antifermentatives, such as rhubarb and soda mixture, or several grains of calcined magnesia, invariably relieved the child and prevented intestinal fermentation.

The treatment of colic is simple when the cause is known. The quickest method of relieving colic is to give an enema of soap and water or of warm chamomile tea. Take an ounce of German chamomile flowers and steep them in a quart of boiling water from ten to fifteen minutes, then strain. With the aid of a rectal tube allow 1 or 2 pints of chamomile tea at a temperature of 100° to 110° F. (no hotter) to flow slowly into the rectum and the colon. When the colon is thoroughly flushed with this warm tea, and emptied of its fæces, it is usual for the attack of colic to cease. In addition to washing the colon, it is a good plan to apply a small bag of either chamomile flowers or slippery elm bark, or ground flaxseed meal. To do this, I make a bag of cheese-cloth capable of holding from 1 to 2 ounces, and then fill it with one of the above-mentioned ingredients; sew the bag shut when filled, and heat it before applying to the abdomen. Several of these bags can be made and kept in readiness, so that they can be applied quickly. It is a good plan to have one heating on the stove while another is on the abdomen. These little bags are very soothing.

Massage.—During an attack of colic gentle massage with warm sweet-oil or melted vaseline or lard will be very comforting to the child. The distended abdomen should then be thoroughly massaged until the gas is expelled and the warm applications applied.

Drug Treatment.—If the colic originated from a fermentative dyspepsia, then treatment must be directed to the stomach. For this purpose antifermentatives, like the mistura rhei et sodæ, should be given in doses of ½ to 1 teaspoonful, diluted with water, every two or three hours until there is a thorough evacuation. Five to 10 grains of bismuth or ½-grain doses of resorcin will also be found useful. Paregoric in doses of 10 to 15 drops should be administered to children of six months or older. It is understood that no physician will forget the danger of giving repeated doses of paregoric or permitting the same to be administered by incompetent persons not aware of the dangers of the drug habit. The author has not only seen distinct opium poisoning follow the use of paregoric, but has also had occasion to see the distinct opium habit in very young children. This was reported by me in a paper read before the New York County Medical Society, January 22, 1894.[1] For an infant during the first few months, it is hardly safe to give more than 5 drops of paregoric, repeated in an hour if there is no relief. Another drug that has served me very well is Hoffmann's anodyne in doses of from 1 to 5 drops, repeated in an hour if necessary. For an infant up to two months, 1 drop per dose; from two to four months, 2 drops per dose; four to six months, 3 drops; six to nine months and until 1 year of age, 4 drops; children from 1 to 2 years, 5 drops. This is to be given in a teaspoonful of sterilized water. Another valuable drug, and one that is to be given cautiously, and in the same doses as Hoffmann's anodyne, is spirits of chloroform; never should more than from 1 to 4 drops be given to a child up to 1 year of age, and younger children less in proportion. I cannot favor the administration of nauseating or foul-smelling drugs, such as asafœtida. We must try to cater to an infant's taste, especially so when in pain.

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[1] Published *in extenso* in the Medical Record of February 17, 1894.

An excellent preparation to relieve colic is calcined magnesia, or milk of magnesia, made by Phillips.[1] It has served the writer very well, especially in young infants, where acidity was prevalent. A half-teaspoonful several times a day was enough in some cases, while others required several teaspoonfuls during the day. It is valuable where constipation exists, and can be added to the bottle of food.

Chronic Intestinal Indigestion (Duodenal Catarrh; Mucus Disease).

This condition is always associated with a chronic derangement of the stomach. It is usually a functional disturbance and is one of the most difficult conditions to treat in children.

Etiology.—This is usually obscure, although it follows exhaustive diseases such as typhoid, diphtheria, or other infectious diseases. The most frequent cause is improper food, unsuited for the age and development of the child.

Symptoms.—As a rule, gastro-enteritis precedes this condition for months, in each and every case. The stool shows a tendency to looseness and mucus is found covering the fæces. The mucus is seen in shreds and masses at times covering the fæcal matter. Such children are usually backward in development. They are very irritable, tire easily, and lose in weight.

As a rule, the abdomen is distended. There is no fever. The appetite varies and is poor. The liver does not functionate properly, and in some cases very little bile is secreted, giving rise to clay-colored stools. The skin is dry.

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[1] *Phillips's Milk of Magnesia—Hydrated Oxide of Magnesium* (MgH_2O_2).—A teaspoonful of Phillips's Milk of Magnesia is equivalent in acid-neutralizing power to 4 ounces of lime water, or 10 grains of sodium bicarbonate. It will neutralize nearly twice its volume of lemon juice. Each fluidounce represents 24 grains of magnesium hydrate. Dose: From a teaspoonful to a tablespoonful, according to age—increased or diminished at discretion. Dilute with equal quantity or more of water.

iosis.—The only condition which might resemble chronic intes-
gestion is general tuberculosis. The absence of cough, the ab-
ever, and the absence of physical signs in the lungs should help
: tuberculosis. The diagnosis will be more readily made when
;astric or gastro-intestinal derangements are taken into account.
iosis.—This is usually good, even though these attacks may ex-
years. If, however, rapid emaciation and general weakening of
exists, the prognosis becomes grave.
ment.—*Dietetic Treatment:* This is the most important part
atment and requires very careful consideration. Excessive fats
rs should be avoided. Light meals rather than heavy should
d. Give predigested food if required. Whey, skimmed milk,
in cocoa, chicken broth, beef broth, clam broth, soft-boiled egg,
rs, raw scraped steak, apple sauce, baked apple, to be varied with
l-stewed fruit, should be given. Avoid all fresh bread. Rusk
) may be given. Give all green vegetables in season. Avoid all
es, pies, and puddings. If this light diet is continued for several
reat improvement will be noted. The ultimate care will depend
:ing the diet to nutritious and very easily digested food.
cinal Treatment.—Give nux vomica, 1 to 3 drops, three times a
e meals. Or:—

:id. hydrochlor. dilut .... 1 ounce
ninims three times a day, after meals.

:areful attention to the bowels; give a laxative if necessary. If
:mia exists then give:—

. ferri acet. æth.................................... 1 ounce
rops, three times a day. One hour after meals.

has been found to be the best form of iron in the management of
tion.

l, 8 years old, was breast-fed in infancy and appeared apparently healthy.
on, walking, and talking normally developed about the end of the first
ing the second year she suffered with measles. When 4 years old she
:ack of acute milk poisoning, resulting in gastro-enteritis. From this
.e has not been in good health. She complained of headaches, nausea,
ia. She has a foul breath, and is very anæmic. She does not seem to
e slightest imprudence in eating causes gastric symptoms. Her abdomen
ıd gas is frequently expelled per rectum. She is always languid. The
e is normal, the pulse-rate feeble; it usually ranges between 90 and
loes not sleep well, talks in her sleep and tosses about. Under a rigid
ling pure milk, and giving diluted milk, whey, thin soups, soft-boiled eggs,
improvement was noted. The interval of feeding was restricted to five
ıat the child was fed three times a day. A daily movement of the bowels
d upon. One-half teaspoonful of phosphate of soda in a teacup of warm
given when the child was constipated. Five drops of acid hydrochloric

dilute was given three times a day. The case improved and the child is in a good condition to-day.

APPENDICITIS.

Appendicitis is an inflammatory condition in and about the vermiform appendix. The size of the appendix varies in infancy. Ribbert gives 3.4 centimeters as the average length, whereas Tojts found the average length to be 5 centimeters. A characteristic of the appendix in infancy is the general richness in follicles. Fæcal concretions are rarely found in the appendix of infants and young children; this may be due to the fluid diet. The appendix usually contained parasitic ovi and mucus, besides undigested particles of food.

Position of Appendix in Infancy.—The appendix is situated higher than McBurney's point. No definite rule applies to the position during infancy. It may be found pointing downward into the pelvis, or it may be directly on the cecum in the right iliac fossa, or it may point upward. Cumston reports a case in which the tip reached the right lobe of the liver. The appendix has an anatomical similarity with the tonsils. Both are composed of lymphatic tissue, and are adjacent to cavities filled with bacteria. The appendix partakes of the inflammatory process of the structure with which it is intimately associated.

Bacteriology.—Macaigne and Cumston found that cultures of the bacterium coli obtained from stools of patients suffering with appendicitis were far more virulent than similar cultures from healthy subjects. The streptococcus in milder cases produces a serious catarrhal process. The bacillus coli is the commonest organism found in appendicitis, although the streptococcus is frequently associated with it.

Klecki[1] found that pathogenic bacteria of a most virulent type can penetrate the peritoneal cavity. This penetration is either during perforation or through the lymph spaces of the damaged intestinal walls. The bacteria penetrating into the mucosa and muscularis may produce rapid necrosis of the tissue elements, the occurrence of perforation depending upon the virulence of the organism present and to some extent the position of the appendix in which gangrene occurs. In infants and very young children inflammatory processes in the appendix tend to progress rapidly that is to say, necrosis of the mucosa and muscularis occurs promptly, s that the bacteria reach the serosa quickly before protecting adhesions hav had time to be thrown off. For this reason it was found that in 50 pe cent. of cases of appendicitis in infants and young children extensive peritonitis developed, this being based on the combined statistics of Schül Rotter, Lexander, and Sonnenburg.

Death is frequently caused by the toxic forms of appendicitis. Th n of the bacterial toxins causes the body to be overwhelmed with n. A thrombophlebitis of the vessels of the mucosa takes place; ria become attached to the thrombi, liquefy them, and thus enter general circulation, producing metastatic foci in distinct organs, e lung, kidney, and myocardium. Thick, inflammatory adhesions note a previous inflammatory process. In 1867 Willard Parker, *edical Record,* stated that necrosis with rapid perforation of the was quite frequently found in children.

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[1] Annales de l'Institut Pasteur, vol. lix, p. 710.

ology.—*Catarrhal Appendicitis:* In this form the walls of the are found thickened and hyperæmic. The lumen of the tube is h *débris* of inflammation. If this inflamed condition continues, may become obliterated. The catarrhal stage frequently ends in ı.

rative Appendicitis.—In this condition the process involves the coat, because the mucous and submucous tissues have been de- The ulcer frequently terminates in perforation.

grenous Appendicitis.—In this condition, also known as intestinal itis, rapid necrosis of all the coats of the intestine takes place. If oncretion exists and the ulcer perforates, an infection of the peri- vity takes place from the virulent bacteria. This is usually due to osis of the artery of the appendix by direct extension of the in- ry process in the intestine. By this means the entire nutritive the organ is shut off and a rapidly progressing partial or total results.

ouration frequently follows the serous exudation, and a localized formed. The danger of such an abscess consists in the perforation ace and the escape of the pus into the peritoneal cavity, setting up peritonitis.

es.—Injury to this region, exposure to extreme cold, and overin- in purgatives have been looked upon as causative factors. Whether odies, such as seeds or hair swallowed by mouth, will lodge in the and cause this disease is doubted by many.

es of helminthic appendicitis have been reported in which were found in the tip of the appendix. Pfoundler and Schlossman ase in which a larger number of ascarides were found.

ptoms and Diagnosis.—Muscular rigidity cannot be depended upon otom in children. Every young child resists an attempt to examine nen. Cutaneous hyperæsthesia is often significant of appendicular tion. A sharp pain is elicited when the skin is lightly touched.

ation of the appendix is always somewhat problematical. We may ed by loops of the intestine in that region, or by the psoas muscle. pendix is very superficial, and if it is distended by an empyema, can a positive diagnosis be made.

Pain in the right iliac fossa is rarely a prominent symptom in children. Some children complain of an acute pain, neuralgic in character, in the right thigh. An abscess may appear in the left iliac fossa or in both fossæ at the same time; the so-called left-sided appendicitis is a left iliac abscess.

Subjective symptoms in children must always be carefully interpreted: fear will frequently prevent complaining when an operation or a hospital has been spoken of. Localized abscess is not as frequent as a general peritonitis, nor can we make out a tumor as promptly in children as in adults.

Tense abdominal walls with distention more marked on the right side would lead us to suspect an inflammation in and around the appendix. The cæcal region can be easily palpated in a child. If it is impossible to properly examine the abdomen and rectum, then an anæsthetic should be given and a proper examination made.

Rectal examination is advisable in every case where an appendicitis is suspected, and where vomiting and diarrhœa are marked. Palpable resistance may sometimes be made out in the right pelvis. If pus has formed, a tumor surrounding the rectum can be felt. The temperature may rise as high as 105° in some cases and remain as low as 101° in other cases. It is only at the beginning of an acute inflammatory appendicitis that we will have a rise in temperature. Septic cases will frequently show a normal temperature; therefore, the temperature must not be our guide as to the necessity for an operation. The pulse is a more positive guide as to the presence of an inflammatory process; it also offers a distinct indication for an operation. A septic appendix will show its presence by an increased pulse; thus, the pulse rate in an acute attack may vary between 90 and 100, but if resistance is poor the pulse rate may rise to 110, 120, or 130 beats per minute, and the prognosis is correspondingly bad in such a case.

Vomiting is an early symptom and one that occasions considerable discomfort. In mild forms of the disease vomiting generally subsides. When peritonitis complicates, vomiting usually recurs. Periodical attacks of vomiting, so-called cyclic vomiting, may be a symptom of chronic appendicitis, with interval attacks.

The Bowels. It is difficult to say whether constipation or diarrhœa more often accompanies these attacks. I have seen cases in which diarrhœa continued throughout the whole attack, so that my suspicion concerning typhoid continued until the localized area of inflammation formed. Frequently the symptoms of typhoid are so well marked that it is well to bear in mind the possibility of this disease. In other cases constipation was noted during the whole course of the disease.

The diagnosis is usually not very difficult. A sudden pain localized in the right iliac fossa, associated with gastric or intestinal symptoms and

d render the diagnosis easy. I rely upon the examination of
an important guide in determining the presence of pus in the

st not mistake appendicitis for an abscess in the right ovary.
n be differentiated by a careful vaginal examination. In young
this is very difficult, an examination can be made with greater
rectum. By means of bimanual palpation we can usually dif-
e same. Acute intestinal obstruction occurs frequently in young
When the obstruction is due to an intussusception, bloody dis-
m the bowels are generally present. In intussusception the
und either in the median line or in the left side, whereas in ap-
occupies the right iliac fossa. When there is a strangulated gut
lvulus the pain is not localized. In this form of obstruction of
here is usually stercoraceous vomiting.

int disease and tuberculosis might possibly be mistaken for ap-
There are a great many cases in which a diagnosis will only be
er the abdomen has been opened.

portant aid in the diagnosis is the examination of the blood. A
rease in the leucocytes occurs in appendicitis, and there is a
rease, leucopænia, in typhoid fever.

ntial Leucocyte Count.—When the polynuclear percentage is
nd there is a marked leucocytosis, we should suspect pus. This
ination must be used to support the other symptoms indicating
a, an appendicitis, or a mastoid—in fact, any suppurative

dying the leucocytes by the daily blood examination there are
sitive indications. Steadily increasing leucocytosis demands
Steadily decreasing leucocytosis is a favorable symptom, and
ates the necessity for an operation.

and Prognosis.—The prognosis depends on the time when treat-
nmenced. *A mild case of appendicitis may resemble colic with
e of temperature and pass off unnoticed.* If these attacks recur
on should be aroused and the appendix removed. It is a good
e physician to call the surgeon in consultation when symptoms
ppendicitis. *Very young infants do not bear laparotomy* well,
he shock caused thereby, but if the surgeon operates *rapidly*
eatly lessened. Cases of appendicitis frequently assume a chronic
ttacks may recur at intervals of weeks or months. If the diag-
sitive, it is much wiser to operate during the intervals of health
run the risk of a fatal complication such as peritonitis.

nent.—First and foremost, absolute rest in bed. Until the diag-
sitive, the diet should be restricted to strained soups, skimmed

milk, and weak tea for thirst. All starchy food should be excluded; hence neither bread, cereals, nor potatoes should be permitted. The choice between hot-water bags and ice-bags depends on individual experience. An ice-bag is soothing to children. The application of several leeches in the early stage of the disease will sometimes prove beneficial. It is of importance to see that the bowels have an evacuation once or twice in each twenty-four hours. While it is desirable to have an evacuation, no active catharsis should be prescribed. Do not stir up the abdomen with drugs; as it will positively do harm. To relieve the constipation, an enema of 1 pint of soap water and 1 ounce of glycerine will evacuate the stagnant fæces. This enema may be repeated daily until the acute attack has subsided. If vomiting persists cracked ice and champagne may be given. The value of opium is disputed by many. It certainly relieves pain, but prevents peristalsis. My choice has been codeine, $^1/_{10}$ grain, increased to $^1/_6$ grain, repeated every hour, depending on the age of the child, until the pain was relieved.

If the symptoms continue in spite of the above treatment, it is possible that medical treatment is insufficient. No time should be lost, but prompt surgical relief should be given.

The Time to Operate.—If a child has had a series of attacks of appendicitis, then it is well to operate after a thorough convalescence. This operation is termed the "interval operation." During the interval between the attacks the physical condition of the patient is usually better. Great stress should be laid on what I have previously mentioned regarding the blood examination with especial reference to the leucocyte count and the percentage of polynuclear neutrophiles. If we have a high polynucleosis with a corresponding leucocytosis, then an operation is indicated.

There are a few guides which may be of assistance when the blood is examined from day to day. Daily variations in the leucocyte count in a suspicious appendicitis are doubtful. If the leucocytosis is stationary, then the abscess may be walled off. If the leucocytosis increases it means a spreading abscess. When the leucocytosis declines from day to day it means a favorable course and operation may be postponed.

If a general peritonitis is present operative interference must not be delayed. It is in this class of cases that we find a general septic process and in which, in addition to the local manifestations, we have a general systemic infection.

PSEUDO-APPENDICITIS.

In atony of the bowel we frequently have impacted fæces. In such cases I have known constipation to cause colicky pains and sudden cramps so that the children would cry out suddenly. Relief was quickly afforded by a high soapsuds enema, which brought away the offending masses of hardened fæces. Fever is frequently an accompaniment of constipation erefore an important matter to exclude all other factors before g to extreme measures and advising an appendectomy. The fol- two cases were reported by me in Pediatrics, Vol. XIII, No. 1,

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SE I.—Maggie W., 10 years old, was perfectly healthy until the time of her llness. She was suddenly attacked with pain, which was localized in the right driac region; the pain was very acute and was increased on pressure; the was distended and quite tympanitic on percussion; there was a marked in the ileocæcal region; there was an intense vomiting, the vomit containing of food along with mucus and bile and had a very offensive odor. The nited several times in one hour and seemed to vomit whenever the pain was ite. The mother stated that the child had a regular movement of the bowels twenty-four hours, that she had had a movement that day and that her had been quite good. She was a very strong and well-nourished child with ce of organic disease; there was no hysterical element; the child complained er pain but that directed to this abdominal condition; there was a history per diet but no history of traumatism; the heart-sounds were normal; no were audible, the lungs were normal on percussion and auscultation; the not seem to be enlarged; the spleen was palpable but not enlarged; the ure was 104° F., taken in the rectum; pulse, 110; respiration, 20.

en first seen an ice-bag had been applied over the most tender spot in the . Codeine in $^{1}/_{6}$-grain doses had been administered and a liquid diet pre- The child was first seen by me about twenty hours after the commencement llness with the above-named conditions. As this case had been seen by colleague I was requested to meet him in consultation. The diagnosis of itic abscess had been made and an operation advised. The diagnosis was ositive owing to the history of overeating. The child partook of many cake and pastries while celebrating a birthday, and an overloaded stomach most plausible. Hence an acute catarrhal gastritis was diagnosed. The l tenderness in the abdomen was ascribed to a colicky condition, resulting mentative processes in the stomach and extending into the intestine. The n was to cleanse the stomach and bowels as rapidly as possible and thus he toxæmic condition which existed. Meanwhile an operation was not con- ntil after the above measures were used.

urine was examined and showed a large excess of phosphates; no albumin, , no casts, no diazo-reaction; hence we excluded typhoid. There was a very dican reaction and this latter strengthened the diagnosis of fermentation testinal putrefaction.

Treatment.—I suggested the use of a very high enema with a long tube into the colon; the enema consisting of 1 pint of glycerine diluted with 2 warm water; the temperature of the same was 102° F. The enema was ctual and brought away a large amount of gas. The temperature which, stated, was 104° F., fell to 102° F. within one hour and gradually returned l in twelve hours, although no other antipyretic measure was used. Small citrate of magnesia were ordered, a tablespoonful hourly, to quench thirst e same time to have a slight laxative effect. A liquid diet was continued, ty-six hours after the above remedies were ordered the child was in a ondition.

E II.—A female child, about 10 years old, was seen by me through the of Dr. L. Harris, with severe abdominal symptoms. The most prominent milk, and weak tea for thirst. All starchy food should be excluded; hence neither bread, cereals, nor potatoes should be permitted. The choice between hot-water bags and ice-bags depends on individual experience. An ice-bag is soothing to children. The application of several leeches in the early stage of the disease will sometimes prove beneficial. It is of importance to see that the bowels have an evacuation once or twice in each twenty-four hours. While it is desirable to have an evacuation, no active catharsis should be prescribed. Do not stir up the abdomen with drugs; as it will positively do harm. To relieve the constipation, an enema of 1 pint of soap water and 1 ounce of glycerine will evacuate the stagnant fæces. This enema may be repeated daily until the acute attack has subsided. If vomiting persists cracked ice and champagne may be given. The value of opium is disputed by many. It certainly relieves pain, but prevents peristalsis. My choice has been codeine, $^1/_{10}$ grain, increased to $^1/_6$ grain, repeated every hour, depending on the age of the child, until the pain was relieved.

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There are a few guides which may be of assistance when the blood is examined from day to day. Daily variations in the leucocyte count in a suspicious appendicitis are doubtful. If the leucocytosis is stationary, then the abscess may be walled off. If the leucocytosis increases it means a spreading abscess. When the leucocytosis declines from day to day it means a favorable course and operation may be postponed.

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It is therefore an important matter to exclude all other factors before resorting to extreme measures and advising an appendectomy. The following two cases were reported by me in Pediatrics, Vol. XIII, No. 1, 1902:—

CASE I.—Maggie W., 10 years old, was perfectly healthy until the time of her present illness. She was suddenly attacked with pain, which was localized in the right hypochondriac region; the pain was very acute and was increased on pressure; the abdomen was distended and quite tympanitic on percussion; there was a marked dullness in the ileocæcal region; there was an intense vomiting, the vomit containing particles of food along with mucus and bile and had a very offensive odor. The child vomited several times in one hour and seemed to vomit whenever the pain was most acute. The mother stated that the child had a regular movement of the bowels once in twenty-four hours, that she had had a movement that day and that her appetite had been quite good. She was a very strong and well-nourished child with no evidence of organic disease; there was no hysterical element; the child complained of no other pain but that directed to this abdominal condition; there was a history of improper diet but no history of traumatism; the heart-sounds were normal; no murmurs were audible, the lungs were normal on percussion and auscultation; the liver did not seem to be enlarged; the spleen was palpable but not enlarged; the temperature was 104° F., taken in the rectum; pulse, 110; respiration, 20.

When first seen an ice-bag had been applied over the most tender spot in the abdomen. Codeine in 1/8-grain doses had been administered and a liquid diet prescribed. The child was first seen by me about twenty hours after the commencement of her illness with the above-named conditions. As this case had been seen by another colleague I was requested to meet him in consultation. The diagnosis of perityphlitic abscess had been made and an operation advised. The diagnosis was not so positive owing to the history of overeating. The child partook of many kinds of cake and pastries while celebrating a birthday, and an overloaded stomach appeared most plausible. Hence an acute catarrhal gastritis was diagnosed. The pain and tenderness in the abdomen was ascribed to a colicky condition, resulting from fermentative processes in the stomach and extending into the intestine. The indication was to cleanse the stomach and bowels as rapidly as possible and thus remove the toxæmic condition which existed. Meanwhile an operation was not considered until after the above measures were used.

The urine was examined and showed a large excess of phosphates; no albumin, no sugar, no casts, no diazo-reaction; hence we excluded typhoid. There was a very strong indican reaction and this latter strengthened the diagnosis of fermentation due to intestinal putrefaction.

The Treatment.—I suggested the use of a very high enema with a long tube reaching into the colon; the enema consisting of 1 pint of glycerine diluted with 2 pints of warm water; the temperature of the same was 102° F. The enema was very effectual and brought away a large amount of gas. The temperature which, as above stated, was 104° F., fell to 102° F. within one hour and gradually returned to normal in twelve hours, although no other antipyretic measure was used. Small doses of citrate of magnesia were ordered, a tablespoonful hourly, to quench thirst and at the same time to have a slight laxative effect. A liquid diet was continued, and thirty-six hours after the above remedies were ordered the child was in a normal condition.

CASE II.—A female child, about 10 years old, was seen by me through the courtesy of Dr. L. Harris, with severe abdominal symptoms. The most prominent symptom was an intense pain localized in the right hypochondriac region, more especially in the ileocæcal region. There was a marked distention of the whole abdomen; there was constipation and vomiting; the temperature ranged between 102° and 103° F.; the pulse, which was 110, rose to 120. The child complained of an intense headache; in the beginning she also had a chill. The history, as given to me by Dr. Harris, was that the child had fallen from a fence on which she was standing, in the yard, a distance of about three feet. He believed that she had injured herself. The doctor's diagnosis was peritonitis from traumatism. In this diagnosis I concurred. There was no distinct localized area of pain, but rather a diffused area of pain extending over the whole of the abdomen, which was intensified in the immediate locality of the injury. There were no chills; there were no rigors; the temperature rose gradually; there was no evidence of suppuration and none suspected. The child was placed on a carefully restricted liquid diet, consisting of broth, soup, strained gruel, milk, egg albumin in various forms and in addition thereto opium in the form of deodorized tincture was given to alleviate pain. Attention was directed to the bowel and an enema was given to flush the rectum and colon and relieve accumulated fæces.

Another colleague saw the child and diagnosed appendicitis, and suggested immediate operative treatment. I was again requested by the attending physician, Dr. Harris, to meet with this other colleague, and as a result, we decided not to have operative interference until we were satisfied that we were dealing with a purulent case. Palliative measures were used, such as ice, locally. In addition thereto the most absolute rest was enjoined, and the child made a brilliant recovery without an operation. We were satisfied that we were dealing with a traumatic peritonitis in which the local area of pain was due to the traumatism.

A careful review of the above two cases will show that when the diagnosis of appendicitis is made by a process of exclusion then greater care should be exercised before resorting to extreme measures.

In the first case the high temperature and the suddenness of the attack certainly showed marked symptoms pointing toward appendicitis. The high temperature was due to the toxæmic condition resulting from impacted fæces. The pain was an enteralgia due to a distended gut filled with gas. Such colicky conditions are so frequent in young infants that we could operate very frequently if the diagnosis of appendicitis were made every time an infant screams with pain. The cases above reported are very interesting as showing that cases will frequently have symptoms resembling perityphlitis or perityphlitic abscess, so that a differential diagnosis will be very hard to make. Not infrequently cases of appendicitis will be overlooked, and when such is the case, if they are of the catarrhal type, no harm will ensue therefrom. On the other hand, I must not be understood as disparaging the idea that no case of appendicitis requires an operation, but my object in calling attention to these two cases is to offer a plea that before a case of supposed appendicitis is subjected to an operation, that we should be sure that all other conditions, such as impacted fæces, as in my first case, and other allied conditions have been excluded in the diagnosis.

AUTO-INTOXICATION.

In very young infants auto-intoxication of the intestines is caused by protein or fatty indigestion and fermentation, and is one of the most frequent causes of high fever.

Too frequent feeding, or the feeding of food containing a high fat or excessive protein suitable for the infant, provokes dyspeptic indigestion. From this indigestion we have fever and the products of decomposition resulting in toxæmia. If this toxæmia continues convulsions frequently follow.

Another common form of auto-intoxication met with is due to stagnant fæces. An impacted stool, especially if atony of the intestine exists will frequently cause a rise of temperature and give marked systemic disturbances such as loss of appetite and headache. The abdomen is distended, notably the transverse colon. The urine is high colored and gives an indican reaction.

The treatment consists in relieving the bowels by an injection of one pint of soap water. Internally 5 grains of compound jalap powder with 2 grains of calomel should be given. Milk should be stopped. Whey or thin broths should be given for at least twenty-four hours. Water liberally is required.

INTUSSUSCEPTION.

The most frequent form of obstruction of the bowel is that known as intussusception, or invagination of the bowel.

Intussusception involves three layers of the bowel, each layer consisting of all the intestinal coats: First, the outer layer is known as the intussuscipiens, the sheath or receiving layer; second, the internal is known as the entering layer which, together with the third, the middle or returning layer, constitutes the invaginated part known as the intussusceptum.

The clinical records show that about one-half of all cases occur at the junction of the small and large intestine.

When the ileum becomes invaginated in the colon, the condition is termed ileo-colic intussusception.

In less than one-third of all cases invagination takes place in the small intestine. This is known as ileal or jejunal intussusception. When this invagination takes place only in the large intestine it is called colic intussusception.

This usually commences at the ileo-cæcal valve and extends downward. It is felt as a tumor much larger than the swelling found in appendicitis.

Intussusception usually causes a recession of the abdomen from the side of the cæcum, while appendicitis, if it does anything, will at least prevent recession of the abdominal walls at this point.

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—Nausea and vomiting are among the symptoms. Later in the disease the vomit becomes fæcal (so-called stercoraceous vomit) in character. The child has pain; assumes the [illegible] position with the thighs drawn up on the abdomen. The pain appears in paroxysms, accompanied with a discharge of blood and mucus. Rectal tenesmus also is present. The temperature ranges between 101° and 103° F. The pulse from 120 to 150 per minute.

Cases that give a clear history of intestinal obstruction with no stool passing, and vomiting caused by such obstruction, offer a good prognosis if operated early. Continued vomiting of food will cause exhaustion and rob the infant of the vitality necessary to undergo the shock caused by the operation.

The following case will illustrate intussusception as met with in general practice. The history was as follows:—

Infant B., five months old, had vomited for some time; was constipated, having had no stool for several days. The temperature was about normal; the abdomen was distended. The child was breast-fed. The breast was discontinued for a short time and barley water substituted to relieve the vomiting.

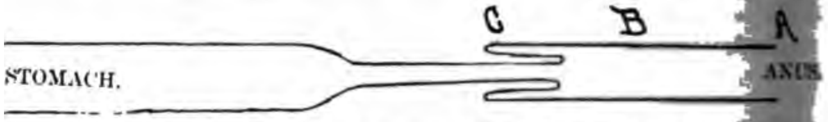


Fig. 82.—Mechanism of Intussusception (Treves). The sheath at *A* passes to *B*, then to *C*. The lower part of the intestine is drawn over the upper instead of the upper crowded into the lower. For a fuller description see Treves's "Intestinal Obstruction," London, 1884.

Through courtesy of Dr. A. E. Isaacs, of this city, I saw the child several times in consultation.

The vomiting continued in spite of the withdrawal of the breast-milk. Paroxysms of pain constantly recurring. Infant screaming. Repeated enemas did not result in emptying the bowels. Calomel had been given in both large and small doses with no satisfactory result. In addition thereto cathartics had been given. The vomiting persisted; at the same time the distention in the abdomen continued. The diagnosis intussusception was made and an operation suggested. The family objected to an operation and palliative measures were used. The child died several days later. The symptoms which were most marked in this case were:—

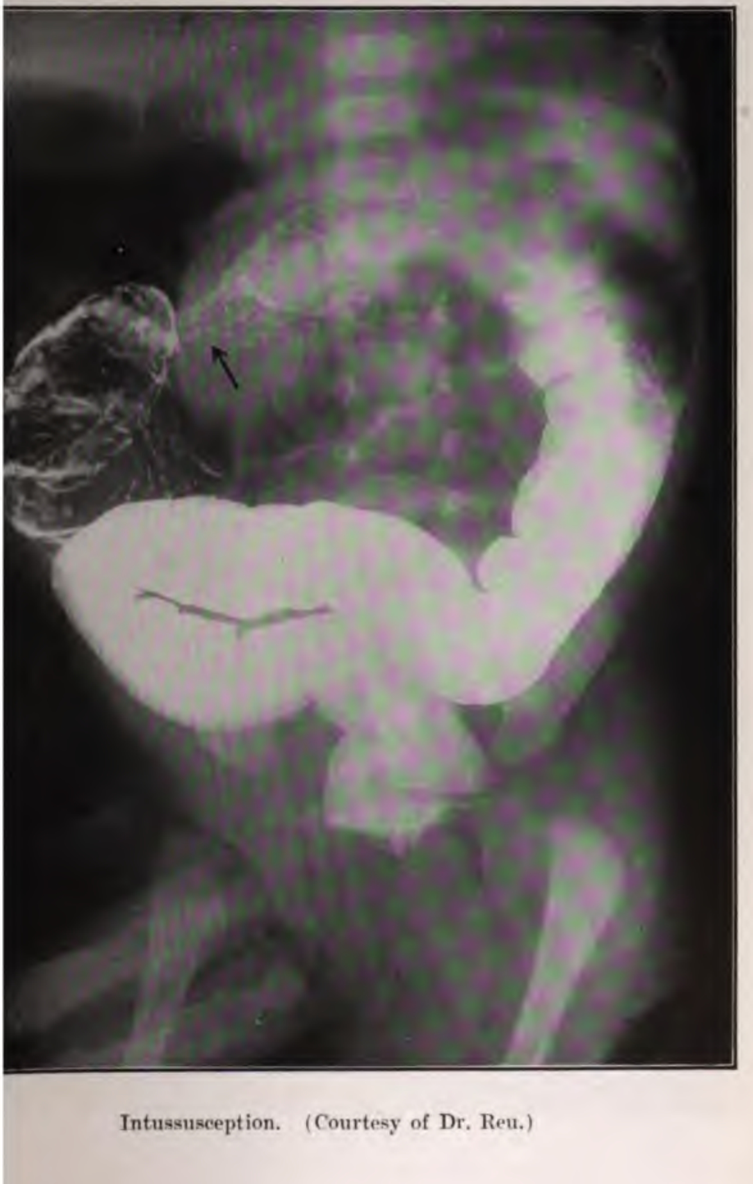
1. Continued vomiting.

2. Fæcal impaction, the gut being so obstructed that no fæces passed in more than ten days, though flatus would occasionally pass.

3. During the first two or three days not only was clear blood passed per rectum, but large masses of *jelly-like mucus tinged with blood* were frequently expelled from the rectum until the end.

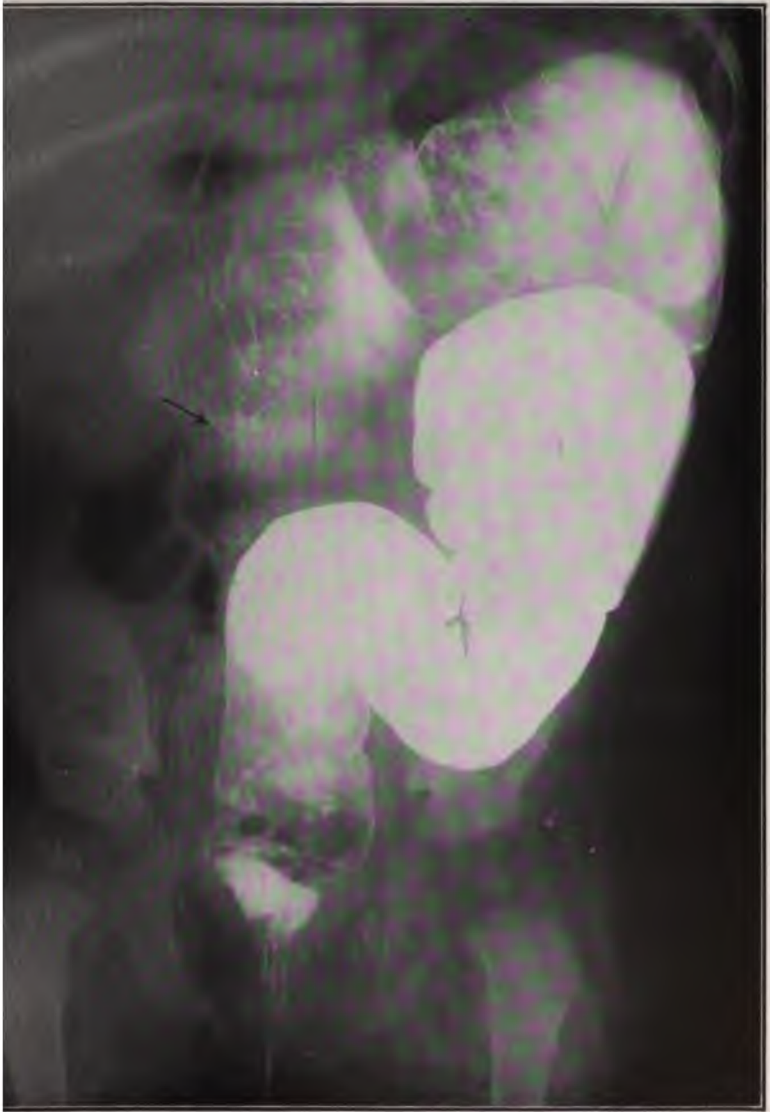
4. The distended belly, the abdomen abnormally distended, and very tympanitic on percussion.

5. The absence of all inflammatory symptoms such as rise of temperature until two days before the death of the patient, when the temperature rose to 101° F. and the pulse rose to 160.



Intussusception. (Courtesy of Dr. Reu.)

PLATE XII



Intussusception. (Courtesy of Dr. Reu.)

6. Continued crying; the child with rare exceptions showed evidences of pain.

There was no positive etiological factor in this case, as there were two other healthy children in this family; the father and mother were in apparent good health. There was no evidence of traumatism nor anything that could be connected with the cause of this condition. The mother stated that for a period of two months before the appearance of this condition she had given a patent cathartic every day, as she thought, with advantage. Whether or no this drug had anything to do with this condition it is difficult to state. The presumption is, however, that the continued effect of giving cathartics was indirectly the cause.

In the above-reported case an operation was refused and the child died. The chances were in its favor:—

1. Because it was a well-developed and well-nourished baby.
2. Because it was breast-fed.
3. Because the diagnosis was made very early in the disease.
4. Because the heart's action was very good, and no chronic or infectious disease existed.

In 1870 Pilz[1] reported 94 cases under 1 year—mortality, 84 per cent. From 1870 to 1891 135 cases, under 1 year, gave mortality of 59 per cent.

The reduction in percentage of mortality in recent years is evidently due to modern aseptic surgery. Whereas formerly recovery depended on sloughing, to-day laparotomy is the rule.

Two interesting clinical points which I have made use of are given by Caillé:—

1. Try to reduce the obstruction by non-operative means—injections of oil—the child in an inverted position following the injection; gentle manipulation of the abdomen.

2. In percussing the abdomen there will generally be found at the site of the obstruction *a very tympanitic area* adjoining a dull area. By carefully noting this point the surgeon has an important landmark for his guidance in performing the operation.

Prognosis.—Without operation the prognosis is exceedingly bad. The earlier the operation, the better the result. In some cases Nature relieves the invagination and a slough will separate. This is, however, a rare condition.

Treatment.—When the diagnosis is established no time should be lost. *Inflation of the bowel* with air or hydrogen through a long rubber tube has been recommended. When this is not successful the child may be inverted and gentle manipulation of the abdomen may be attempted.

Injections may be given with or without anæsthesia. The baby is turned on its belly; the hips are raised by gently supporting the abdomen on a soft pillow. The mouth and nose, being the lowest part of the body, must be protected. The baby is then anæsthetized with chloroform, and warm water is poured into the rectum with but little pressure, from a height not exceeding three feet. The injection is frequently interrupted while the anus is closed with a cotton plug held by the finger. At same time the abdomen, in the direction from below upward, is kneaded and its contents moved about.

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[1] Jahrbuch für Kinderheilkunde. Bd. iii, p. 6.

Unless this proves successful no time should be lost and an abdominal operation should be performed.

Although surgical interference offers the best means of treatment, should note the condition of the child at the time of operation, and consider the result of shock and haemorrhage in estimating the [illegible] result. No cathartics should be given after the operation, but the bowels should be confined by administering a small dose of opium. Stimulants will be urgently demanded; hence whisky or iced champagne **should** given *ab libitum*. It is well to remember that very young **children** not offer good resistance to the shock of an abdominal section. **Fully** per cent. of cases seen by me were fatal. The details of an **operation** intussusception are those of aseptic surgery, for which my **readers** referred to the special books on surgery. Dr. John F. Erdman, of York City, has reported a series of successful operations in very children.

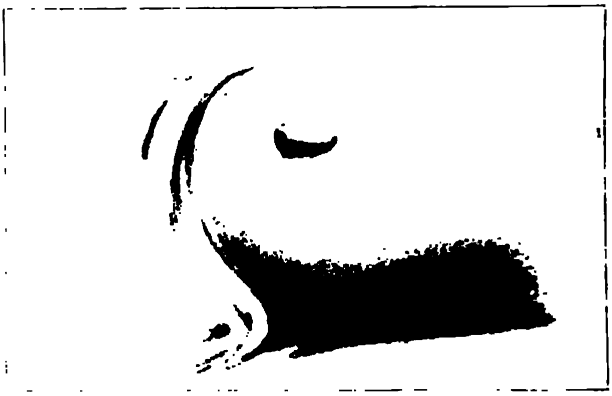

Fig. 83. Umbilical Hernia. The result of violent paroxysms of whooping cough. (Original.)

UMBILICAL HERNIA.[1]

This condition is frequently seen in both male and female children. It is more often seen in the female.

Causes. It is usually found in children with flabby muscles, rachitic and atrophied cases. Severe abdominal strain during the of whooping cough or in continued constipation frequently

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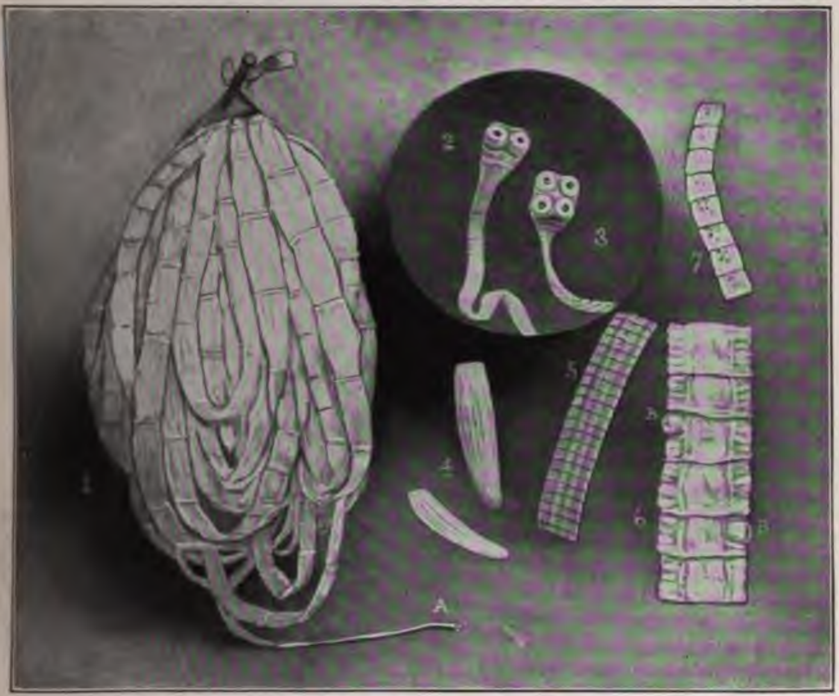
[1] For Inguinal Hernia, see chapter on "Diseases of the Genito Urinary Tra

PLATE XIII



Cestodes (Tape-worms). *1*, Tænia saginata. *A*, Head of tænia saginata. *2*, Dorsal view of the head. *3*, Apex view of head, showing depression in center. *4*, Isolated, elongated segments. *5*, Bothriocephalus latus. *6*, Ripe segments of tænia saginata. *B*, showing location of sexual organs. *7*, Half-developed segments of tænia saginata. Illustrations drawn from specimens. (Original.)

in umbilical hernia. The tumor may be from one-half to one inch wide, and the same also in length.

Treatment.—*Preventive Treatment:* After the umbilical cord has separated, the usual flannel binder may be used to lend support to the abdomen for the first two or three months.

Mechanical Treatment.—A pad of absorbent cotton into which a thick piece of cork or a wooden button the size of a 25-cent-piece is wrapped, should be snugly pressed over the protruding part and secured by thick straps of zinc oxide plaster. This dressing should be renewed every four or five days. The treatment must be continued for several months.

A truss consisting of a rubber pad and a belt to pass around the body should be applied so that it cannot slip and has enough pressure to keep the hernia in place.

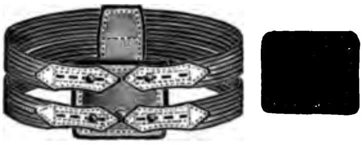


Fig. 84.—Umbilical Hernia Truss.

TAPEWORM (CESTODES).

The tapeworm enters the body by food containing the larvæ. Several varieties are met with. When the worm is fully developed it consists of rectangular segments or pieces. These segments are also called proglottides. The head and neck of the worm are called scolex.

The eggs (larvæ) of the tænia solium are found in pork; tænia mediocanellata, in beef; bothriocephalus latus, in fish; tænia cucumerina, in dogs and cats.

Development of the Worm.—A worm develops in about three months. When the terminal segments are mature they separate and are discharged in the stool. As each segment contains both male and female organs, each one is capable of regenerating a whole worm. For this very reason the treatment of a tapeworm will never be successful until the head and every segment has been expelled. Tapeworms are estimated to live from ten to twenty, and possibly, thirty years.

The beef tapeworm is the *most frequent* found in children. It has four suckers, a square head, and no hooks. Raw meat may contain the cysticerci.

The pork tapeworm is the *rarest* found in children. The head has four suckers, surrounding which there is a circle of about twenty-six hooks. The length of the worm varies from ten to fifty feet. Nursing children are exempt from tapeworm.

Symptoms.—In children between 2 and 4 years of age subjective symptoms are difficult to interpret. In older children we will notice attacks simulating colic associated with fairly good movements of the bowels. There is restlessness at night and marked nervous irritability by day. The breath is foul and the child presents evidences of marked anæmia. In spite of an abnormally large appetite the body wastes and the child is believed to suffer with some latent form of tuberculosis.

Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is positive only when segments of the worm are found. The absence of cough or pulmonary symptoms will usually aid in excluding tuberculosis. At times several weeks will pass before a positive diagnosis can be made.

Prognosis.—The prognosis is usually good. It is simply necessary to use radical treatment to dislodge and sicken the worm and then expel it.

Treatment.—The tænicide should be given after fasting and followed in an hour by a cathartic to carry off the worm. The best tænicides are pomegranate or its alkaloid, pelletierine; filix mas; kousso; pumpkin seed, and turpentine.

℞	Oleores. filis mas	1½ drachms
	Chloroform	10 drops
	Syr. ginger q. s. ad	1 ounce

M. Sig.: Divide into two parts. Take on empty stomach, half-hour apart. For a child ten years old, younger children one-half the dose.

℞	Tannate of pelletierine	½ grain

Sig.: For a child 3 to 5 years old (T. M. Rotch).

℞	Olei terebinthinæ	1 fluidrachm
	Olei ricini	½ ounce

M. Sig.: Take it in one dose (Farquharson).

Since entire expulsion of the tapeworm is effected with difficulty preparatory treatment for about forty-eight hours should be employed before the vermifuge is administered. During this time the patient should take a mild purgative once or twice, and such food in moderate quantity should be allowed as leaves little residuum, as beef-tea, etc., with some stimulant if the patient feels exhausted. There are three articles of food which experience has shown to be especially useful in this preparatory treatment, perhaps from a sickening effect which they produce upon the worm, namely, salt herrings, onions, and garlic. This may, therefore, taken as food in the twelve or eighteen hours preceding the employment of the vermifuge, which it is ordinarily most convenient to administer the morning.

Ascaris Lumbricoides (Round Worm).

This worm is a reddish or yellowish round worm, usually from 5 10 inches long. The male worm is smaller than the female. This worm inhabits the small intestines. It is seldom found solitary, but usually 4 to 10 may be present. Some authors state that as many as 200 and 300 have been found at one time. The worm is usually found in children between the second and tenth years. It is never found in nurslings. These worms will wander from the small intestines into the stomach and irritate the gastric mucosa. They are frequently expelled by vomiting.

A child 4 years old was seen by me during my service at the Willard Parker Hospital in the fall of 1903. The child had pharyngeal and tonsillar diphtheria. It was a septic type of diphtheria. The child vomited *a round worm about 6 inches long* on the second day after admission. On the third day another worm about 5 inches long was also ejected by vomiting. There were no symptoms pointing to the presence of these round worms.

Some authors report worms wandering into the nose and also into the middle ear. A worm entering the larynx has produced fatal asphyxia. Another author reports jaundice due to worms entering the common bile duct. Worms have been known to produce hepatic abscesses. They have been found in the vermiform appendix. These worms appear most frequently in the stools. They have been found in umbilical abscesses.

Symptoms.—Very indefinite symptoms can be ascribed to these round worms. Irritation, such as restlessness at night, grinding of teeth, picking the nose, and scratching the anus. Abdominal symptoms, such as colic, diarrhœa, and tympanites, are frequent. This clinical picture must not be presumed to be present in all cases. Not infrequently symptoms of meningitis will be mistaken for worms. Be sure to exclude all other conditions before expressing a positive opinion. Nervous symptoms, such as hysteria, vertigo, and epileptiform convulsions, have been noted while worms existed. As these conditions disappeared when the worms were expelled, it is but fair to presume that they were indirectly the cause of these nervous manifestations.

Diagnosis.—A positive diagnosis can only be made if the round worms are discharged from the body or if the ova are discovered in the stool. The microscopical examination, therefore, is very valuable and should always be made when in doubt. If the ova are still found in the stool after one or two worms have been expelled, then more worms should be suspected.

Prognosis.—The prognosis is always good, but the child must be kept under constant observation for at least several months.

Treatment.—To eliminate worms from the body, the tænicide should be given for several days and then followed by a brisk cathartic. The following formulæ have served me very well:—

℞ Magnesii sulphatis	4 drachms
Syrupi rubi idæi	2 fluid ounces

M. Sig.: A tablespoonful two or three times a week, to be preceded by santonin,[1] spigelia, or chenopodium. Once a day a high enema of soapy water should be given. The folds of the anus should be carefully cleansed with soap and water, and the following ointment applied:—

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[1] The formula for santonin is given in the chapter on "Oxyuris Vermicularis."

℞ Acidi borici	1 drachm
Olei rosæ	3 drops
Vaseline	1 ounce

M. Sig.: Apply externally.

Other tænicides recommended by Townsend are:—

℞ Ext. spigeliæ	10 fluid ounces
Ext. sennæ	6 fluid ounces
Olei anisi	20 minims
Olei cari	20 minims

M. Sig.: Half-teaspoonful for a child 2 years old, two or three times daily. Teaspoonful for a child from 4 to 10 years old.

Or:—

℞ Oil of chenopodium	2 drachms

Sig.: To be given on sugar three times daily, in doses of 5 drops, to a child of 3 years. Ten drops to a child of 10 years. A cathartic should be given every second or third day.

OXYURIS VERMICULARIS (PINWORM; THREADWORM).

The female worm is thin, yellowish white, and has a pointed tail. The male has a strongly curved tail. *The male worm is rarely found in the stool.* The female worm is present in greater number than the male. The oxyuris is frequently passed in the mucus during a catarrhal discharge from the rectum. These worms frequently wander from the rectum into the vagina.

Symptoms.—Irritation and itching of the anus, causing restlessness and severe nervous manifestations, usually appear after the child is in a warm bed. The itching frequently gives rise to a desire for frequent urination. In severe cases it may lead to masturbation. The constant scratching to relieve the itching has produced vulvitis and vaginitis. Convulsions have been brought on by reflex irritation due to the presence of worms.

Treatment.—Threadworms are most effectually and easily removed by the use of enemata. For this purpose lime water, or an infusion of quassia, or solution of common salt (a teaspoonful of salt to 4 ounces of water) may be employed. In using these agents the bowels should first be cleansed by a copious injection of warm water. Jacobi recommends a decoction of garlic as an enema in these cases.

℞ Santonin	1 to 2 grains
Mild chloride of mercury	½ grain

M. Sig.: Every night for two or three nights, to a child 5 or 6 years old, and followed each morning by a purgative dose of castor-oil.

Or:—

℞ Santonin	1 grain
Compound liquorice powder	2 drachms

(Eustace Smith.)

UNCINARIASIS (HOOKWORM DISEASE).

The American worm was discovered in 1899 by Dr. Bailey K. Ashford. It is named Necator americanus. It is about half an inch in length, and has the appearance of soiled spool cotton. The larvæ enter the system through the soles of the feet, and finally lodge in the intestinal tract.

The symptoms are extreme pallor of the skin, profound anæmia, excessive appetite, occasional abdominal pains, and tenderness. The bowels may be constipated or loose; the stool is fœtid. There is palpitation of the heart—a hæmic murmur. Hæmoglobin percentage drops to between 30 and 60 and the red cells from 3,500,000 to 4,000,000 per cubic centimeter. There is a marked eosinophilia. There is marked weakness and a disinclination to play.

When the symptoms are more severe, there is an œdema of the feet and ankles, and puffiness of the face is noted. Sometimes a jaundiced condition exists. Some cases show emaciation. The nervous system is disturbed, there is marked insomnia, and the urine contains traces of albumin, but no casts.

The stools should be examined for the ova while fresh. The ova are found with greater ease in partially formed or soft stools. In preparing specimens a drop of water is placed on a clean slide and a bit of fæcal matter is taken up on a platinum loop; this is thoroughly mixed and a cover glass placed over the specimen, after which it is examined with a $^{2}/_{3}$ objective.

Treatment consists in giving thymol in 5-grain doses, every hour for 4 doses. In view of the toxic qualities of thymol, it is advisable to thoroughly test the eucalyptus treatment, which is recommended by many treating this disease.

℞ Eucalyptus oil	2 drops
Chloroform	1 drop
Castor oil	2 drachms

Sig.: One dose t. i. d. Repeat treatment several days.

CHAPTER V.

DISEASES OF THE RECTUM.

FISSURE OF THE ANUS.

AN ulcer having its long diameter parallel with the long axis of the bowel is occasionally met with. It occurs at the anal margin. It is seen in infants as well as in older children. It is caused by the passage of irritating hard fæcal masses. It is also occasionally seen after prolonged diarrhœa with continuous straining. Some authors state that traumatism from the nozzle of a syringe may cause a fissure. This I have never been able to verify. Streaks of blood of a bright red color will usually be seen in the stools when a fissure is present.

The prognosis is good.

Treatment.—This should be mainly hygienic, and consist in thorough cleansing of the parts. The application of solid nitrate of silver will usually effect a cure. The bowel should be relieved daily by the injection of sweet-oil or glycerine to soften the fæces. Some authors advise stretching the sphincter of the anus and keeping the parts at rest.

SIMPLE CATARRHAL PROCTITIS.

The rectum is rarely inflamed without additional portions of the bowel being involved. When the same exists, local causes must be looked for; for example, carelessness while irrigating the rectum. Mistakes, such as corroding or caustic drugs, can set up an inflammation. An instance of this kind occurred in my practice when a child received a strong injection of carbolic acid, causing inflammation. Infection extending from the vagina or urethra, such as gonorrhœa or diphtheria, can cause this condition. Syphilis has been known to affect the rectum. In simple catarrh the pathological lesions are the same as those found higher up in the gut.

The symptoms are pain when the bowels move. The stool contains mucus, which may be distinctly separate. When folds of mucous membrane protrude they are very angry looking and show a deep red pigmentation. Children old enough will complain of intense burning and itching.

The treatment consists in using bland injections such as oatmeal water or starch water; when severe tenesmus exists, bicarbonate of soda, a teaspoonful to a pint of water, is beneficial.

CROUPOUS PROCTITIS.

This is the form usually associated with diphtheria of the genitals. Large and small pieces of mucous membrane are found mixed with the stool. Pathogenic bacteria, such as the streptococci and staphylococci, are found in the dejecta.

The treatment consists in using bland antiseptic irrigations, bichloride of mercury, 1 to 5000, or a normal saline solution, repeated several times a day. If diphtheria is present, antitoxin should be given (see chapter on "Antitoxin").

If syphilis is present the usual treatment for the same (see chapter on "Syphilis") is indicated.

ULCERATIVE PROCTITIS.

Tuberculous ulceration of the rectum has been reported by **Steffen**; also by Holt. Syphilitic ulcers are rare in children. There is usually bleeding and tenesmus. The blood is of a bright red color. The diagnosis is easily made by examination with a speculum and by no other means.

The treatment is very difficult. First, cleanse the rectum. Apply, locally, nitrate of silver with the aid of a speculum. The insufflation of iodoform, dermatol, or europhen is very useful.

HÆMORRHOIDS.

This condition is occasionally met with in children. It usually accompanies chronic constipation. The persistent constipation associated with cretinism occasionally causes this condition.

An instance of this kind was seen by me in a child about 2½ years old, which was referred to me because it could neither walk nor talk. It had been operated for congenital adenoids by Dr. W. Freudenthal. The case had been under the treatment of Dr. A. Jacobi for one year. In this case chronic constipation was associated with hæmorrhoids. The stool was so hard and dry that blood was occasionally found after severe tenesmus. Thyroid treatment was directed against the cretinism, and malt extract ordered to overcome the constipation.

The usual treatment consists in removing the cause as much as possible as above described.

I have never met with a case under 12 years of age that required operation, although instances of this kind are occasionally described in surgical literature.

ISCHIO-RECTAL ABSCESS.

In excoriated conditions around the anus, following continued diarrhœa, an infection frequently results from scratching. Pyogenic bacteria undoubtedly enter the lymph channels.

A case of this kind was seen by me in the family of Dr. J. Grosner, of New York City. An infant nursing at the breast had dyspeptic symptoms, such as flatulence, and, later, intestinal catarrh. An ischio-rectal abscess developed later on. It was benign and required a simple incision with careful attention to asepsis. This condition lasted in all about two weeks. The child made a splendid recovery.

At times we meet with very deep-seated inflammation which requires the skill of the surgeon. When a fistula exists proper surgical treatment is indicated.

PROLAPSUS ANI.

When children strain, especially during constipation, prolapse of the anus frequently follows. Not infrequently as much as one or two inches of the mucous membrane protrudes. (See Fig. 115.)

Causes.—There are three main causes: First, weakness of the levator ani muscles. In general atonic conditions—for example, in rickets—this condition frequently follows constipation, the constipation being a part of the rickety condition and indirectly causing a straining during defecation, thus ending in prolapse of the rectum. Deficient peristalsis, especially in young children, induces them to strain to expel hardened fæcal matter. On the other hand constant diarrhœa and irritation in the lower bowel may also result in prolapse. When an attack of summer complaint has lasted a long time, we usually find at the end of defecation that the rectum protrudes.

Second, when the ischio-rectal fat is deficient. In marasmic conditions, such as in athrepsia infantum or following the acute infectious diseases, when high fever and general wasting have taken place, the body fat suffers, and so the mechanical support of the rectum is lost.

Third, traumatic condition. This condition is frequently induced by coughing paroxysms, hence it not infrequently follows whooping-cough. Retention of urine, phimosis, and vesical calculi may cause this condition.

Diagnosis.—The size and the location of the tumor, and its appearance during the straining while at stool, render the diagnosis easy. The ease with which the prolapse can be replaced is noteworthy in making a diagnosis. It is rare for this condition to be mistaken for intussusception (see chapter on "Intussusception").

Treatment.—*Local:* Place the child in the knee-chest position and apply olive-oil to the prolapsed bowel, after which the gut can be replaced. When this mild manner of reduction is not successful, a whiff of chloroform should be used to quiet the child. This will also relax the protruding part. After replacing the gut the buttocks should be supported by a stout strap of adhesive plaster running from side to side. Cold water irrigations should be given. These will have the two-fold object of emptying the lower bowel as well as toning the muscle. Astringent injections of sulphate of zinc, 1 grain to the ounce, or tannic acid, 10 grains to the ounce, are recommended by some. I have failed to see any benefit therefrom. The local application of the tincture of the chloride of iron once every three days has seemed to be of some benefit. The solid stick of nitrate of silver or cauterization by means of the Paquelin cautery, made red hot, is frequently recommended. Heroic measures, such as amputation of the parts, are rarely, if ever, necessary.

Constitutional Treatment.—We must not expect to cure a condition of this kind unless the body is strengthened. Restoratives, cereals, eggs, and milk must be prescribed. We can supply a deficiency of fat by ordering codliver-oil or lipanin, 1 teaspoonful three times a day. When constipation exists the addition of malt, as in a malted food, will aid this condition. Strychnine may be given in doses of $^1/_{100}$ of a grain, and increased gradually until $^1/_{60}$ of a grain is given, three times a day. Iron can also be given with great advantage. Massage of the abdomen and electricity must not be forgotten. A cold shower or spray over the spine and abdomen, repeated every day, is an excellent tonic.

RECTAL POLYPI.

Polypus of the rectum is very common in early life. When bleeding occurs it may be due to a fissure or to a hard scybalous stool tearing the mucous membrane. It may be caused by a rectal polypus. Frequently we find this condition in syphilis.

The treatment consists in tying off the polypus with fine catgut or snipping the polypus with a scissors and then cauterizing the base.

CHAPTER VI.

DISORDERS ARISING FROM THE IMPROPER ASSIMILATION OF NUTRITION WHEREBY FAULTY METABOLISM RESULTS.

Faulty Metabolism.

This condition is primarily due to faulty feeding, or to conditions associated with improper nutrition whereby faulty metabolism results. It is found in infancy, but is also very prevalent in older children between the ages of 4 and 14 years. We find a subnormal condition of the skin which may be cold or moist, or the skin may be found dry, and the circulation poor. The extremities are cold; cyanosis is not present. Such children frequently have marked vasomotor disturbances manifested by unilateral flushes of the face, of one ear, or the nose. The elasticity of the skin is much less than normal. Adipose tissue is usually lacking, although this type of case may be unusually fat. Such adiposity is due to faulty assimilation. The child shows the evidence of defective nutrition. It is underfed. If it is not underfed, then the food is not assimilated. Sometimes both quantity and quality of food are properly regulated and still subnormal conditions prevail. An absence of the internal secretions due to functional inactivity of various glands associated with the digestive tract is most probable because such cases have, first,

Lienteric stools in which undigested particles of food may be found. Such lienteric condition may be modified by a stimulation of glandular activity, such as the salivary and peptic glands. We must not undervalue the rôle played by the pancreatic ferments, and the necessity for that most important of all glands, namely, the liver. Inactivity on the part of the liver and the absence of a proper secretion of bile are two of the most potent factors in causing faulty metabolism.

Second. **Scybalous Stools.**—When dry, round, fæcal masses stagnate in the colon they set up a series of symptoms which yield one of the most frequent sources of trouble in children. In this type of stagnation of fæces, one of the prime causes is the absence of tone to the intestinal muscles, but the dryness and lack of secretion *per se* is due to the absence of proper lubrication from a subnormal mucous membrane. It is plain, therefore, that we must seek the origin of this trouble in a deficiency of the secretions previously named or in the absence of a proper secretion of bile. The bile salts, especially in infancy and childhood, have a most important bearing on the efficiency of digestion. Unless the liver performs its function, faulty metabolism is inevitable. Whenever possible the urine should be examined for the presence of indican. Indicanuria usually accompanies stagnation of intestinal contents, and is frequently associated with symptoms that make up a clinical picture of autointoxication of the intestine. Fever, so-called absorption fever, is usually a bi-product of this stagnation, and the temperature will range from 100° to 102° F. for many weeks, or until the diet is so reduced and the gastrointestinal tract so cleansed that intestinal stagnation is impossible.

It is readily seen from what has just been said that faulty metabolism robs the bones of their proper nutrition, and by a deficient quantity of blood the nutrition is subnormal; hence rickets due to soft bones results. A deficiency of lime salts in the bones is evident in the teeth, which show carious manifestations and a breaking down, so-called chalky teeth.

What applies to the bones is true also concerning the muscles. The muscles are flabby and soft, and show the lack of tone that good healthy muscular tissue should show. Such children are very restless at night; as a rule the general atony of the muscles of the bladder results in enuresis.

The atony of the intestine is evident in deficient peristalsis and consequent coprostasis. The obstipation if present results from dryness and lack of secretion in the intestine; hence scybalous stools are noted.

Faulty metabolism is very evident in the nasopharyngeal tract. Such children have the adenoid habitus, they are prone to infections, and are constant sufferers from tonsillitis and swelling of the adenoid vegetations. The cervical glands are usually enlarged. These children are frequently victims of bronchitis and pneumonia.

Owing to this subnormal condition the immunity of the body and the phagocytosis are so greatly minimized that such children not only invite all exanthematous infections but frequently succumb therefrom. Due to this lack of vitality, one is not surprised to see a slight rhinitis extend through the Eustachian tube and set up an otitis media ending in mastoid infection. It is this class of cases which if first seen by the laryngologist will be treated by curetting adenoids if present, and likewise by the removal of tonsils if hypertrophied.

Catarrhal Tendencies.—These cases are brought to the pediatrist weeks and months after such primary operation for the relief of three serious symptoms which were the reason for the nasopharyngeal treatment. These symptoms are: loss of appetite, no gain in weight, and general restlessness and irritability. These three symptoms stand out prominently in the picture which, summed together, spells faulty metabolism.

Nervous Manifestations.—There is an irritability and sensitiveness simulating hysteria in the adult. Such children are easily dissatisfied. They cry on the slightest provocation. They are peevish and hard to please. This applies not only to their clothing, surroundings and playmates, but, equally so, their food cravings are abnormal. They insist on sweets, also crave sour foods and condiments. Biting of the nails, thumb sucking and masturbation in the form of thigh friction may be started by an excoriation around the genitals and anus, caused by very acid or ammoniacal urine.

I have been requested to examine such cases for a suspicion of tuberculosis. The picture does resemble tuberculosis, although no tubercle bacilli exist in the expectoration. Such children will not give a cutaneous reaction when scarrified with tuberculin. The physical signs in the chest are negative, although rhonchi may occasionally be heard.

These cases frequently have a distinct resemblance to hereditary syphilis. The differential diagnosis can be determined by securing an honest family history, and noting the presence or absence of Hutchinson's teeth. If still in doubt with the absence of such important data, a Wassermann reaction will aid in establishing the diagnosis. Faulty metabolism is an important factor in tuberculosis as well as syphilis, and the exclusion of such diseases must be positive. There are thousands of children whose sallow appearance and shriveled skin imply an abnormal state of health which requires vigorous treatment if results are to be obtained.

Treatment.—If we are dealing with a distended colon or distention of the stomach associated with flatulence or eructations of gas, then starches in all forms must be excluded. Potatoes, bread, cake, and all flour foods must be stopped. In addition thereto all cereals such as rice, barley, and cornstarch must be excluded. The stool should be examined to see whether it contains gaseous bubbles and mucus or whether the consistency is solid. In a young child a strict diet of milk, eggs, and cream cheese is indicated. An older child, besides milk, cheese, and eggs, may have junket, custard, fish, meat, and all green vegetables. Stewed fruits and fresh fruits are indicated. The question of assimilation of food depends greatly on a regular four or five hour interval between each meal, with fresh air and out-door exercise, and not overfilling or overtaxing the stomach with large meals.

Nux vomica in doses of 1 to 5 drops before each meal, depending on the age of the child, is an excellent tonic. Pancreatin in doses of 1 or 2 grains may be combined with the nux vomica.

The weight is an important guide as to the progress of proper metabolism. A mild laxative such as 15 to 20 grains of calcined magnesia can be given every morning if necessary. The child must not be permitted to retire without an evacuation of the bowel. One-half pint of soap-water may be given as an enema if necessary.

A change of air from the city to the seashore for several months during winter or summer will frequently aid in establishing normal conditions. Some children will be benefited by a change to the mountains. The influence of a tepid bath followed by a cool shower, or a cold bath in the morning, if the child can tolerate the same, is an excellent tonic. Such cool baths should be followed by friction of the skin to stimulate the cutaneous circulation. It is an excellent vasomotor stimulant.

Some of these cases may require a mild faradic current of electricity applied over the stomach and intestines. By such treatment the plexus of nerves is easily stimulated to advantage. The electricity should be given for several minutes every other day, and if well tolerated may be given daily for a month or more.

SCURVY (SCORBUTUS: BARLOW'S DISEASE).

This is a constitutional disease resulting from improper feeding.

Etiology.—It usually occurs before the end of the second year, and rarely occurs before the first six months of a child's life. As in adults, scurvy is found when fresh food has been withdrawn from the dietary. It is natural, therefore, to look for scorbutic cases among children who are:—

First, deprived of breast-milk.

Second, in those brought up exclusively on milk which is devitalized by *prolonged sterilization.*

Third, it is found in children brought up on condensed milk and on those *proprietary foods to which fresh milk has not been added.* There seems to be, therefore, a direct relationship between the absence of fresh milk, be it cows' milk or human milk, and the development of this disease. It is a great mistake to attach importance to the fact that an infant was fed on a proprietary food unless we know whether or no fresh milk was added. It is the absence of the live factor in fresh milk which directly causes scurvy.

Troup, of Christiana, quoted by Koettlitz,[1] is strongly of the opinion that scurvy is the result of a scorbutic element of the nature of a ptomaine present in the diet. Jackson and Vaughan Harley,[2] as a result of an experimental inquiry into scurvy, arrived at much the same conclusion. The question under discussion here is whether or not infantile scurvy is the result of the *absence of some essential element in the diet* or the *presence of some scorbutic factor.* It is certain that an infant fed for a long period upon peptonized milk[3] will develop scurvy, but if potato gruel and raw meat juice are added, yet no other alteration made in the diet and no medicine given, the scurvy will rapidly disappear and the child be well in a few weeks. Thus the addition of a fresh element to the scurvy diet has cured the condition. Moreover, many of the diets, for example, oatmeal and water, upon which the young children become scorbutic, seem to exclude the possibilities of the development of ptomaines. The experiments of Jackson and Harley do not carry conviction that true scurvy has been produced in animals, but rather that a condition of ptomaine poisoning has resulted. It is possible that unsound food may hasten the development of scurvy, but the evidence at present seems insufficient to invalidate the conclusion that infantile scurvy is due to the absence of an anti-scorbutic element rather than to the presence of some scorbutic poison.

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[1] Guy's Hosp. Gazette, March 30, 1901.

[2] Proceedings Royal Society, March, 1900.

[3] The prolonged use of peptogenic milk powder will produce scorbutic manifestations.

Summary of Essential Conditions.—The six essential conditions to be observed in the diet of infants are these:—

1. The food must contain the different elements in the proportions which obtain in human milk, viz.:—

Protein	1.5 per cent.
Fat	3.5 per cent.
Carbohydrate	6.5 per cent.
Salts	0.2 per cent.
Other constituents	0.6 per cent.
Water	87.7 per cent.
	100.0

2. It must possess the anti-scorbutic element.

3. The total quantity in twenty-four hours must be such as to represent the nutritive value of 1 to 3 pints of human milk, according to age, viz.:—

Protein	225 to 675 grains
Fat	231 to 693 grains
Carbohydrates	613 to 1839 grains

4. It must not be purely vegetable, but must contain a large proportion of animal matter.

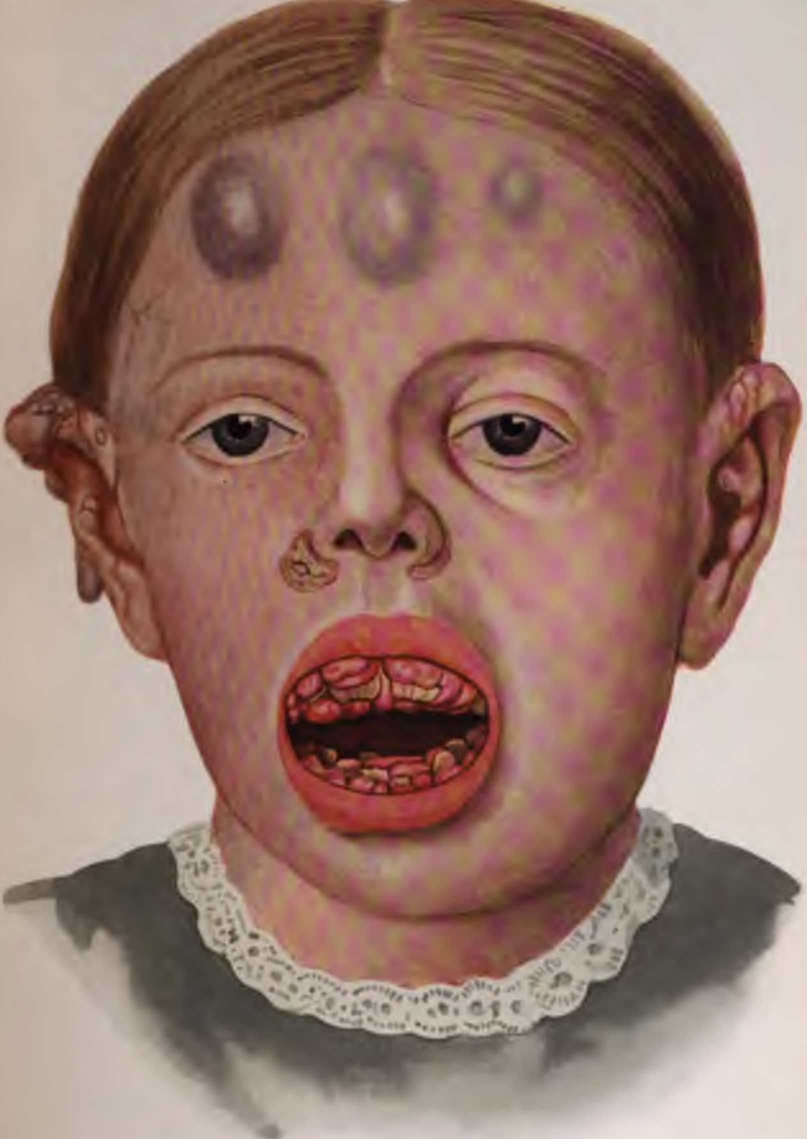
5. It must be in a form suited to the physiological condition of the digestive function in infancy.

6. It must be fresh and sound, free from all taint of sourness or decomposition.

Pathology.—Hæmorrhages in and around the joints and in the muscles are found post-mortem. The most important point, however, is the presence of subperiostial hæmorrhage involving the long bones. Rotch states that the femora are the most commonly affected, and that there is a tendency to a separation of the epiphyses. Interstitial hæmorrhage involving the lungs, spleen, kidneys, and interstitial glands has been found. When the kidneys are involved we can usually find hæmaturia. Hæmorrhages are frequently present in the mucous surfaces; thus the gums show a deep purple color, besides being swollen and presenting the characteristic spongy appearance.

We are indebted to Barlow for his valuable studies regarding the pathology and symptomatology of this disease. The blood shows no specific changes which are pathognomonic to this disease.

PLATE XIV



Infantile Scurvy.[1] Ellen S. Five years old. The gums are swollen or beefy and hanging in tumor-like masses. There are also blood-tumors on the forehead. (From the pathological laboratory of the Great Ormond Street Hospital, London. Courtesy of Sir Thomas Barlow.)

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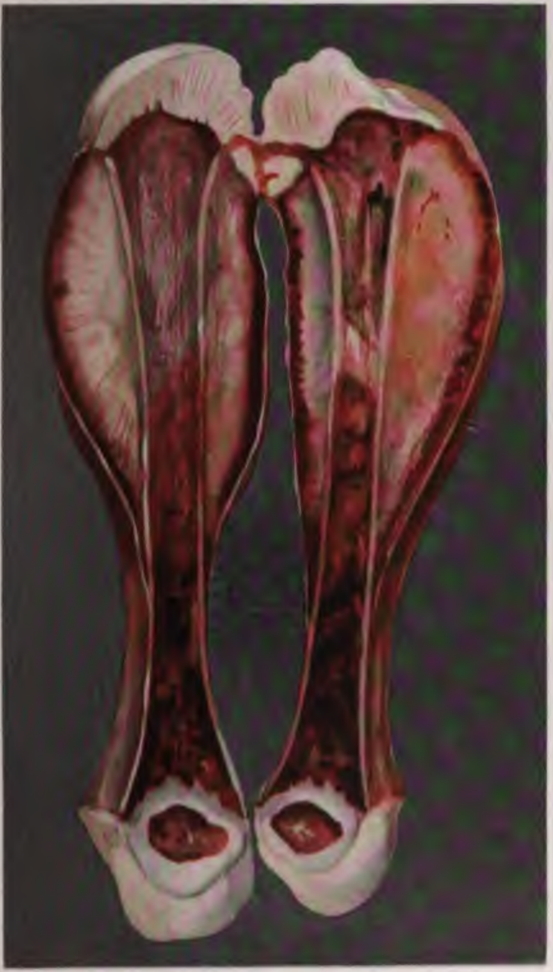
[1] I am indebted to Dr. Richard Armstrong, of the Great Ormond Street Hospital, London, for valuable assistance in procuring Plates XIV and XV.

PLATE XV



Infantile Scurvy. Femur divided by anteroposterior section, showing the characteristic scorbutic changes; including fracture of the shaft at about a quarter its length from the head, and displacement of the upper epiphysis. The especial feature is the wide separation of the periosteum from the upper half of the bone by new bone which has been organized from a pre-existing subperiosteal hæmorrhage.

Bacteriology.—No specific bacterium has as yet been found nor does the blood show any peculiarities bacteriologically.

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—The symptoms are marked irritability by day and restlessness at night, associated with insomnia. The mother or nurse will usually say that the child cannot be satisfied and cries whenever touched, most especially when the arms and legs are moved. It is very apparent that there is pain due to a swelling of the limbs, usually of the diaphyses just above the epiphyses. When not disturbed these children seem to lie quietly. Swelling of the limbs in the legs and forearm is usually present. While the skin over the swelling is tense there is no evidence of fluctuation. Tenderness on pressure is usually noted. Bluish-black spots, due to small subcutaneous hæmorrhages, are visible. When hæmorrhages affect the deeper parts around the eyes so that the eye itself will be pushed forward, a condition called proptosis will be noted. This condition of proptosis is found in advanced cases of scurvy.

Owing to pain in the limbs the child does not appear to move, giving rise to the impression that the child is paralyzed. When this condition is seen in scurvy it has been called pseudo-paralysis. The gums are very spongy and swollen, and have bluish maculæ over the surfaces. The child shows the evidences of marked anæmia and loss of weight. There is loss of appetite, and when food is taken the head perspires freely. The temperature rises in the evening to between 100° and 101° F. The pulse is small, feeble, and ranges between 120 and 140. The respirations are not affected. The clinical picture is one of marked malnutrition with symptoms simulating tuberculosis.

This disease is liable to occur in either sex; it is not influenced by climate or locality; it is found as well in the best as in the poorest hygienic surroundings. By far the greatest number of cases is found among the rich. It is evident that this disease is due to improper feeding more than to an improper hygiene. Some authors believe that this disease is caused by a specific micro-organism; this latter fact has not yet been definitely settled.

It is interesting to note the various views expressed by competent observers upon this subject; thus, while a large majority of clinicians hold that sterilized milk *per se* does cause scurvy, Rotch states that it does not, in his own experience, seem to do so. Starr maintains just the reverse and believes that sterilized milk is a causative factor. From my own experience I quite agree that sterilized milk—especially the prolonged sterilization, by which the albumins are changed, and by which this prolonged heating causes devitalization, which is so inimical to successful feeding—is a causative factor in this disease.

It is peculiar that scurvy will be cured by giving raw milk, fresh fruits, and acid fruits; still we find that a great many clinicians per-

When children have walked, and suddenly stop walking, attention should be directed to the state of the gums and to the general physical condition. Such cases are usually suspicious, and may show the beginning of scurvy. Indeed, such symptoms will develop long before there is a general breaking-down. Emaciation and anorexia follow, which are associated in this condition.

Differential Diagnosis.—*From Rickets:* This condition is easily differentiated. In scurvy there is no rachitic rosary. There are no hemorrhages involving the gums nor spongy swellings found in rickets. The pendulous belly is not seen in scurvy, neither is the rachitic, square head.

From Tuberculosis.—The absence of cough and other physical signs in the lungs, besides the absence of the symptoms above mentioned common to scurvy, will differentiate this condition from tuberculosis.

Scurvy and Rickets.—Both diseases may be found at the same time in the child, and are evidently due to disturbances of metabolism founded upon dietetic errors in the absence of the live factors in food.

Prognosis and Course.—The course of the disease is usually chronic. The outcome depends on the rapidity with which vitality can be restored. A decided change in the mode of living, the food, and the hygienic conditions must be continued for many months after improvement has been noted. Unless we persist with treatment relapses will occur.

Treatment.—The most important part of the treatment of scurvy consists in eliminating the antiscorbutic elements by proper feeding.

Dietetic Treatment. Antiscorbutic diet consists of fresh milk, fine potato gruel,[1] raw meat, raw yolk of egg, orange juice, and sugar.

Fresh milk is clearly not a potent antiscorbutic, and, although sufficient to prevent scurvy when given in full quantity, will not always prevent it when taken in small amounts only. It fails accordingly to remove the scorbutic condition with quickness and certainty when given alone. It is necessary, therefore, to add to the food some more active agent, such as potatoes, carrots, or a vegetable juice, as orange juice, Malaga grapes, or a broth in which vegetables, such as carrots and potatoes, have been boiled and strained, with raw meat juice in addition.

In addition to the rigid enforcement of the above-mentioned foods we must insist upon fresh air.

Medicinal Treatment. Restoratives such as codliver oil, with or without the hypophosphite of lime or soda; iron, arsenic, and strychnine are the most valuable in this condition. The lime salts are indicated; 3 to 5 grains of calcium lactate may be given three times a day. Excellent results can be obtained from the use of soluble forms of iron, such as peptomangan (Gude) or Fowler's solution, given after each meal. If a suspicion of a constitutional disorder such as syphilis exists, an alterative, like the syrup of the iodide of iron, 10 to 30 drops, or ferrosajodin tablets, ½ tablet three times a day, may be given. Malt extract contains a live factor, and is, therefore, valuable as an antiscorbutic restorative; it should be given in doses of a teaspoonful, two or three times a day, or until the bowels are loose, then the dose must be reduced.

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[1] Prepared by rubbing thoroughly steamed floury potato through a fine sieve, and beating this up well with milk until it is smooth and of the consistency of thin cream. A teaspoonful of this may be added to each bottle at first, and the amount gradually increased to a dessertspoonful, if it is found to agree. Well boiled carrots may be used in the same way.

When recurring hæmorrhages are noted, an injection of 10 to 15 cubic centimeters, or about 4 drachms, of sterile horse serum should be given. This will frequently be followed by a rapid disappearance of the bluish spots.

Hygienic Treatment.—Besides having fresh air, a child suffering with scurvy must be put directly into the sun. This sun bath should be administered daily, but, owing to the delicate nature of the skin, precautions must be used against scorching the same. Some children can stand no more than fifteen minutes' exposure to the sun's rays, while others will not scorch though exposed for an hour. Proper ventilation of the sleeping apartment is very important. A scorbutic child requires a daily bath consisting of one pound of sea salt to a tub of water at a temperature of 95° F. The child should be bathed from three to five minutes and rubbed briskly while in the tub. After the bath the body should be dried with a coarse towel and rubbed until the skin has a pinkish color. This friction or massage is very invigorating, and if done in the evening it will promote sleep and soothe the child.

Rachitis (Rickets).

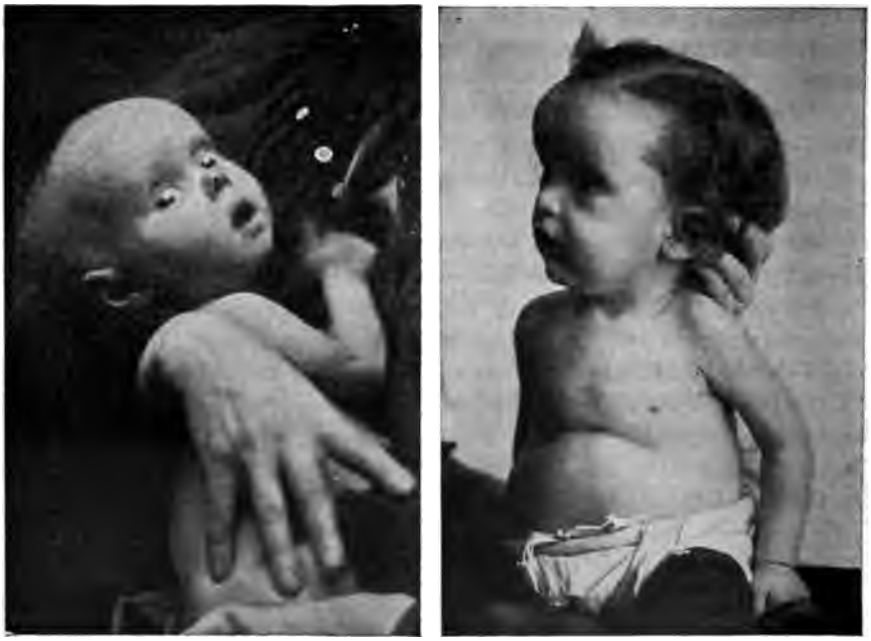
Rickets is a disorder of nutrition. It occurs chiefly between the ages of 6 months and 2 years. Congenital rickets is occasionally seen. It affects the bones primarily, and these are very readily distinguished during life. The disease also affects the ligaments, the mucous membrane, the muscles, and especially the nervous system.

Pathology.—The lesions are chiefly noticed in the bones, although the soft tissues show evidences of anæmia. The primary lesion is hyperæmia of the periosteum, the marrow, the cartilage, and the bone. The spleen and liver are usually enlarged. Frequently we note enlargement of the lymphatic glands.

Starck found the spleen enlarged in 50 per cent. of his autopsies in rachitic children, and in 68 per cent. of all his living cases. In the kidneys there are usually no pathological lesions. The cartilage cells of the epiphyses undergo increased proliferation from four to ten times more than they do in a normal growing bone. The matrix is softer; as a result the bone formed from this abnormal cartilage lacks firmness and rigidity.

The increased proliferation of cells makes the epiphysis larger, swollen in appearance, irregular in outline, and much softer in consistence. It has been experimentally proven that hyperæmia of bone causes defective decompositions of lime salts. Owing to this deficiency of lime salts the bones become very soft and flexible. While normally there is two-thirds mineral matter in the bones, in rickets this is reduced to one-third. Thus we can easily explain the various "rachitic deformities" which are especially noted in the femur, the tibia, the radius, the ulna, and the ribs. When ossification is retarded during rickets, as, for example, in the parieto-occipital region, the bone is frequently so thin that it yields to pressure; this is called craniotabes.

Fig. 85 Fig. 86

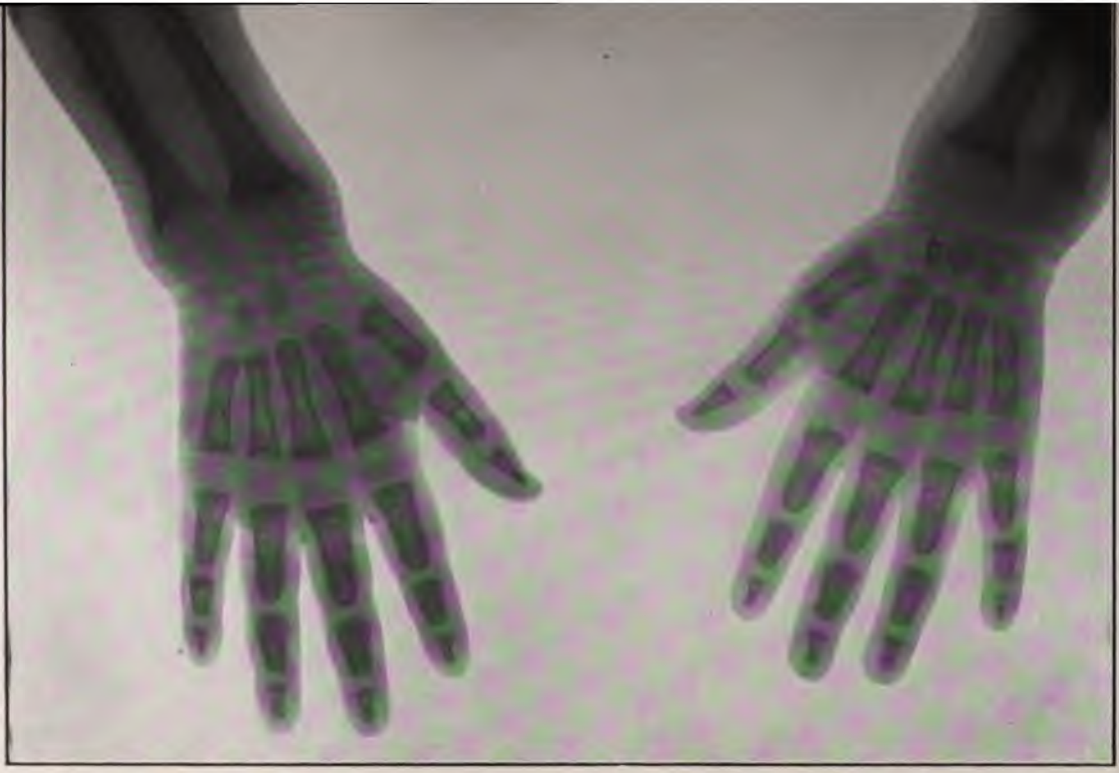


Cranial, Thoracic, and Abdominal Type of Rickets.

Fig. 85.—Hydrencephaloid (Spurious Hydrocephalus). Infant 8 months old. Bottle-fed. Suffering with cholera infantum. Severe nervous and toxic symptoms.

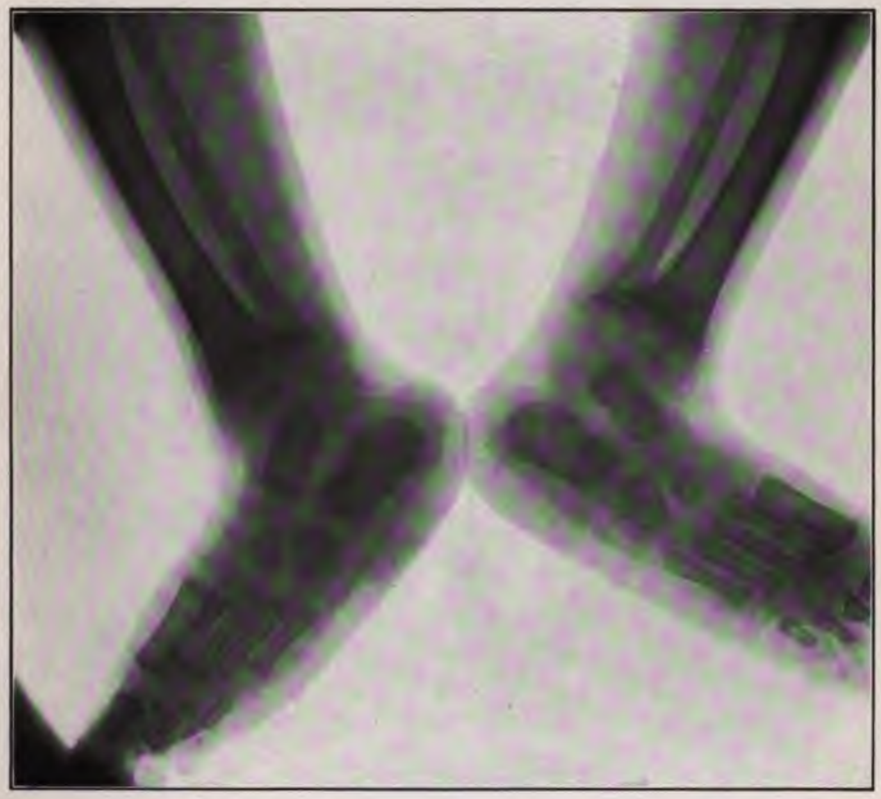
Fig. 86.—Same Child Two Years Later. Note the square head, the frontal protuberance. Also the Harrison groove and the pendulous belly. (Original.)

The fontanels are not closed until very late, owing to this delayed ossification. The frontal and parietal protuberances are very much enlarged, due to exaggerated proliferation of the periosteum, so that the



Rickets. Note the flaring, cup-shaped, irregular termination of the diaphysis. Condition accounts for enlargement of wrists in rickets.

PLATE XVIII



Rickets. Note the flaring, cup-shaped, irregular termination of the diaphysis. Condition accounts for the enlargement of ankles in rickets.

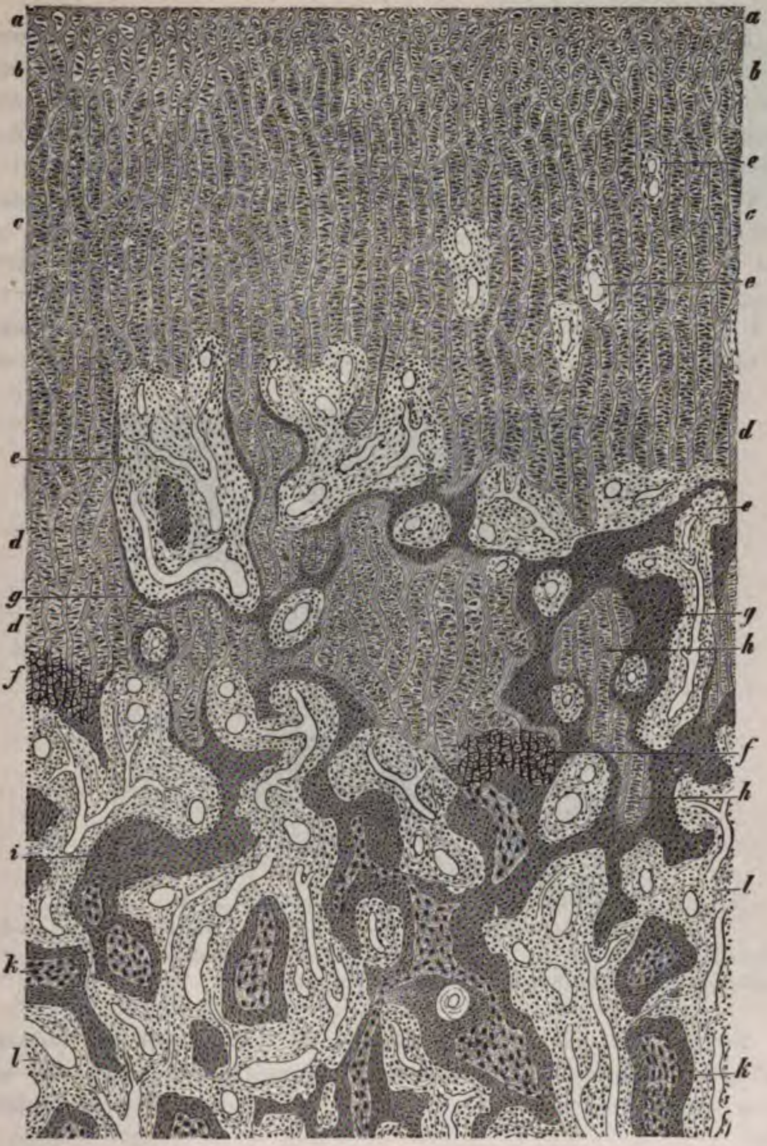


Fig. 87.—Rickets. Longitudinal section through the ossification junction of the upper diaphyseal end of the femur of a one-year-old child suffering from rachitis of moderate degree. *a*, Unaltered hyaline cartilage. *b*, Cartilage in the first stage of proliferation. *c*, Zone of proliferated cartilage-cell columns. *d*, Columns of proliferated hypertrophic cells. *e*, vessels located in the cartilage, with fibrous marrow tissue. *f*, Decalcified cartilage tissue. *g*, Osteoid tissue. *h*, Remains of cartilage tissue in osteoid tissue. *i*, Trabeculæ of decalcified osteoid tissue. *k*, Trabeculæ of osteoid and fully formed calcified bone tissue. *l*, Fibro-cellular marrow tissue. (Ziegler.)

head acquires a broad forehead with characteristic frontal prominen This condition is frequently taken for hydrocephalus. When ossificati takes place the bones become large, heavy, and irregular in outline, con sponding to the clinical manifestations known as "bow-legs," "knock-kne "pigeon-breast," "spinal curvature," and "square cranium."

Where the bone joins the cartilage, as, for example, on the ribs, e largements occur which simulate beads; hence the term "beaded ribs," al called "rachitic rosary." The same enlargements can be felt at the wris ankles, and knees.

A *section* through the epiphyseal junction of a rachitic bone shows very vascular, bluish-colored condition, which is softer than normal wh

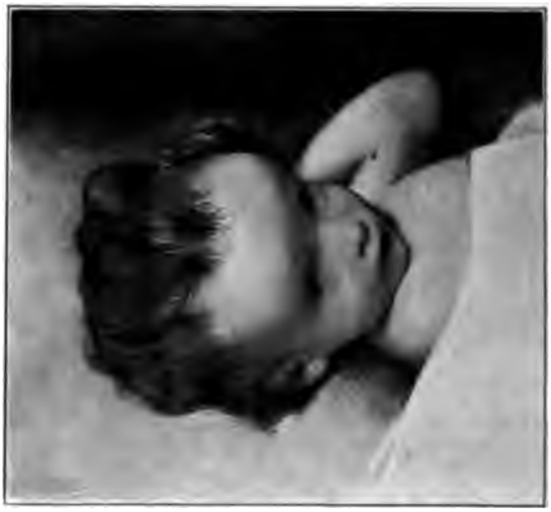


Fig. 88.—Spurious Hydrocephalus, Illustrating Marked Frontal and Parietal Protuberances. There was a striking resemblance to a case of hydrocephalus. Bottle-fed. Rachitic. (Original.)

cut. In the shaft next to the periosteum the bone is soft and thicke but deeper it is hard. Sections through thickened masses on the flat b show a spongy, vascular substance which is soft enough to be inde easily.

Microscopical examination shows a marked increase in new cartil cells and increased vascularity of the proliferating zone. The areas wl should be calcified show large quantities of cartilaginous tissue inst The under-layer of the periosteum is very vascular, and again there i great excess of uncalcified cartilage. In the flat bones the bony trabec are eroded, and their places taken by newly formed minute blood-vessels.

When the rachitic process ceases and recovery begins, this exces proliferation stops. Calcification and ossification of these tissues ta place; the enlargements due to the hyperplasia are absorbed, and the bone returns to a normal condition save for any deformities that may have resulted during the activity of the rachitic process.

Etiology.—Children that have suffered prolonged diarrhœas or with severe diseases—like dysentery, typhoid, bronchitis, and pneumonia—are prone to the development of rickets. Children of syphilitic parents and those whose parents are tuberculous are more prone to the development of this disease. Von Ritter, quoted by Professor Baginsky, says that, in 27 cases out of 71 examined by him, rickets was not only found in the children, but as well in the mothers of these same cases. Thus it is that Kassowitz and Schwarz[1] have mentioned the existence of congenital rickets. These same authors found that 80 per cent. of children born in the Vienna Lying-in Hospital were rachitic. This statement is not so easily accepted, for neither Professor Baginsky nor Virchow accept the same. Experimentally, it has been found as long ago as 1842 by Chossat that when lime is deducted from the nourishment of young animals not only soft bones result, but they finally die. Heitzmann maintains that, if lactic acid is introduced into the food of young animals, the result will be, first. rickets, and, later on, osteomalacia will result therefrom. Clinical investigations have shown that cases of rickets occur more often during the winter months; thus it would seem that improper hygiene is one of the factors causing this disease.

The bones show the most characteristic result of improper nutrition, for they are very soft and spongy. They will yield to the weight of the body if used in walking, and thus it is that bow-legs with extensive curvatures form such a prominent feature in showing the result of using soft bones.

The absence of human milk from the diet of an infant is one of the prime reasons for the development of rickets. We therefore find more than 90 per cent. of all cases of rickets among bottle-fed babies. Other contributing factors are the absence of sunshine and the crowding of large families into small rooms having poor ventilation. Rickets will occasionally be seen in the breast-fed child under similar conditions. If the mother while nursing suffers with malnutrition, malaria, chronic cough, or with any organic lesion which devitalizes her body, then poor breast-milk deficient in its nutritive elements will cause the baby to be underfed and finally result in rickets.

Symptoms.—One of the earliest symptoms noted is constipation. Head sweating while feeding, especially at night, is an early symptom of rickets. Rolling of the head on the pillow, with occipital baldness, pallor of the skin, and profound anæmia, frequently precede or accompany the development of rickets. Rachitic changes affect the fontanel and the sutures, as well as

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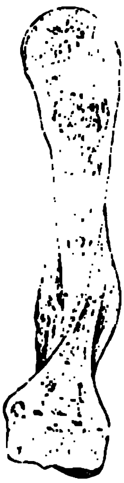
[1] Wiener medicinische Jahrbuecher, 1887, vol. viii.

1. Rachitic kyphosis.
2. Rachitic scoliosis.
3. Chicken (or pigeon) breast.
4. The rachitic pelvis.
5. Cubitus valgus or varus.
6. Distortion of the lower extremities:—
   (*a*) Genu varum.

Fig. 95

Fig. 94



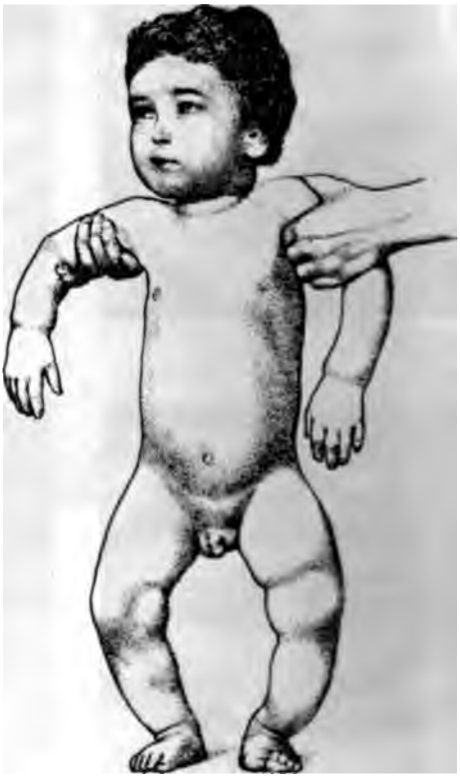


Fig. 94. Five-week-old Fracture of the Humerus, in a Rachitic Child 1½ years old. (Langerhans.)

Fig. 95. A severe Type of Rickets With Enlargement of Both Condyles of the Femur. There is also enlargement of the upper epiphyses of the tibia and fibula. The illustration also shows enlargement of the epiphyses of the ankles. An anteroposterior curvature (giving the bow leg appearance) is plainly seen. Note also the enlarged epiphyses of the radius and ulna. Drawn from a photograph. (Original.)

   (*b*) Genu valgum.
   (*c*) Anterior curvature of the tibiæ.
   (*d*) General distortions of the lower limbs.

Diastasis of the Recti Muscles in Rickets.—When the muscles lose their tone, we frequently have the bony changes soon afterward. Diastasis of the recti muscles of one-half or one inch can sometimes be made out. To properly examine a child for this condition it should be laid on its back with the head and shoulders elevated; thus the recti muscles will relax and a protrusion of the abdominal contents in the median line can be noted.

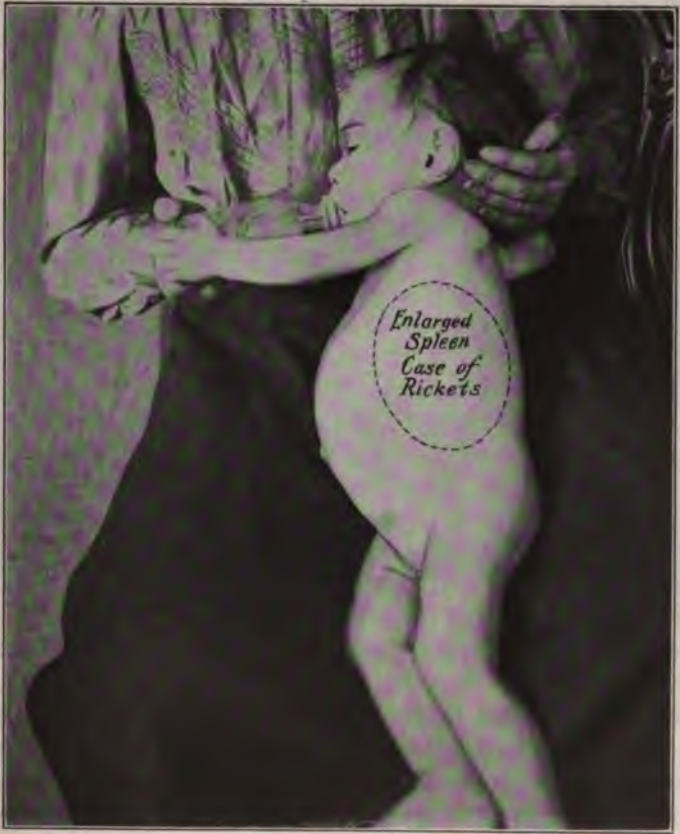


Fig. 96.—Case of Rickets Showing Enlarged Spleen; also Pendulous Belly. (Original.)

The clavicle is affected only in severe cases.

Extremities.—It is not difficult to note deformities in the humerus. The epiphyses, as in all long bones, are thickened and enlarged. The thickening of the epiphyses in the radius and ulna is readily made out. The shafts of these bones describe a convexity upon their extensor surface. Green-stick fractures are very common in these bones. The ends of the metacarpal or of the phalanges are sometimes enlarged.

The Lower Extremities.—The outward bend of the tibia and, in many cases, of the femur produce the condition known as bow-legs (genu varum). (Fig. 95.) In these cases when the feet are put together the knees are far apart. The opposite condition known as knock-knee (genu valgum) may exist. The inner condyles of the femur are hypertrophied, so that when the knees are put together the feet are far apart. Knock-knees are more common in females. The ligaments around the joints are relaxed and weakened, so that from an anatomical standpoint they assist in producing this deformity. The muscles show marked evidences of this disease. They are flabby, soft, and small with poor development. This accounts for the lateness in walking. The muscular power is very feeble, and not infrequently paralysis will be suspected when really we are dealing with aggravated rachitic muscles.

Malnutrition is plainly made out on studying those emaciated, anæmic children whose bones are markedly rachitic. On the other hand, we frequently find very fat children with extreme pallor showing marked rickets. Therefore, a *fat infant is not necessarily a healthy infant.* The abdomen is enlarged and usually tympanitic on percussion. It is commonly known as the "pendulous belly." This latter symptom I met with in fully [illegible] per cent. of my cases in a large children's service extending over many thousand cases. I have rarely failed to note the distended belly in rickets. The loss of tone in the abdominal muscles, and especially in the muscular walls of the stomach and intestines, is one of the prime reasons for constipation. Occasionally the reverse may be true and diarrhœa may be noted. There is frequently marked distention of the stomach and colon. The stools are hard and dry, causing a chronic catarrh of the colon. We frequently find at the end of the stool a large amount of glairy mucus.

The pulse and temperature are normal. Occasionally a bruit can be heard over the anterior fontanel. It has no special significance. There is nothing characteristic in the urine in rickets. The blood has been studied by Morse, who concludes that anæmia is present in most cases. Its intensity varies with the intensity of the rachitic process. Leucocytosis may or may not be present. An enlarged spleen is met with in these cases.

Convulsions and spasms of various descriptions occur frequently in rickets. There seems to be a predisposition to general tetany, and to laryngeal spasm (spasmophilia). The general weakness of the body is also seen in the marked tendency to irritation in the nerve centers. *Most diseases in rachitic children are ushered in with convulsions*, thus showing the extreme sensitiveness and susceptibility of the nerve centers. An overloaded stomach in a rachitic child under 1 year of age, suffering with high fever, is usually attended with hyperpyrexia and convulsions.

Diagnosis. This is usually very easy. Head sweating, constipation, restless at night, delayed dentition without palpable osseous manifestations usually mean rickets. The most prominent symptoms are beaded ribs, enlargement of the epiphyses of the wrists and ankles, kyphosis of the spine, and bow-legs.

Differential Diagnosis.—The rachitic head is sometimes mistaken for hydrocephalus. The electrical reaction will decide whether or no we are dealing with a poliomyelitis, or if the case is a pseudo-paralysis with rickets. We can differentiate the bony enlargements of syphilis from rickets with the aid of an x-ray. The *bony changes in syphilis affect the shaft of the bone* rather than the extremities. An important point to remember is that in syphilis there may be necrosis; this is never seen in rickets. The differential diagnosis will best be made by a blood examination for the presence of a Wassermann reaction. Scurvy is easily differentiated from rickets by the spongy condition of the gums, by the tendency to hæmorrhage, and usually also by the presence of ecchymotic spots. The diagnosis of rachitic kyphosis from spinal tuberculosis (Pott's disease) is easily made, although I have seen one case in which there existed a rachitic kyphosis in a tuberculous child.

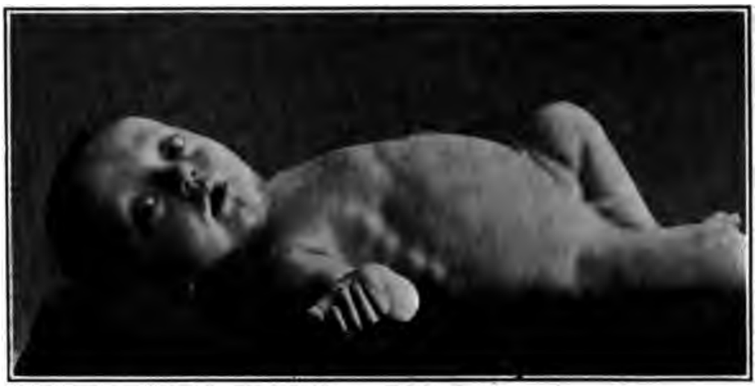


Fig. 97.—Rickets, Showing Beaded Ribs and an Enlarged Pendulous Belly. Mouth-breathing due to adenoids. Breast-fed infant. Always lived in tenement house district. Mother very anæmic. (Original.)

Prognosis and Course.—Rickets, *per se,* is rarely fatal. The active symptoms exist about one or two years; in rare instances for many years. Damage of the system may remain throughout life. Spinal curvatures and thoracic deformities will remain for many years.

Rachitic children when attacked by infectious diseases suffer far more and the prognosis is graver than it would be otherwise. The abnormal condition of the thorax in rachitic children must always be taken into consideration in a child suffering with pneumonia, pleurisy, or other pulmonary conditions, in estimating the outcome of the disease.

Treatment.—*Hygienic Treatment:* When rachitic conditions are established the first thing to do is to insist upon removing such children to healthful surroundings. When children are housed in poorly ventilated homes, dark rooms, it is useless to give medicine until the unsanitary surroundings are improved. Successful treatment in such cases demands *plenty of sunshine,* open windows, night and day, a tub bath with a handful of sea salt added every day. After the bath good brisk rubbing to stimulate the circulation is very necessary. A change of air from the city to the country is desirable. When we are prescribing for the poor they should be instructed to remain in the park as much as possible. The establishment of *small roof gardens* on the tops of the highest dwelling or tenement houses makes a cheerful place for the rachitic children to play.

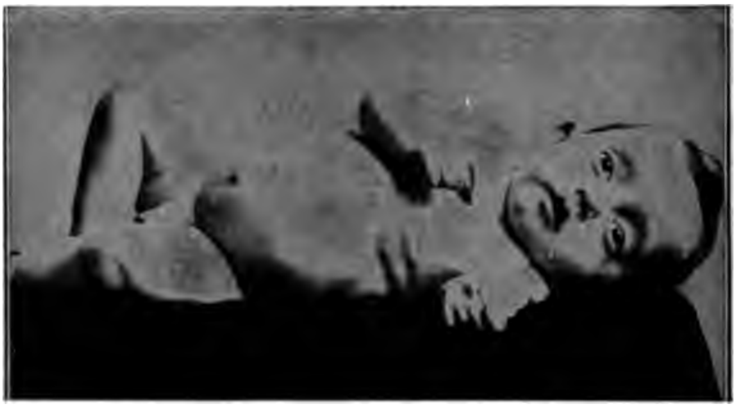


Fig. 98.—Rickets. Note Beaded Ribs on Left Side of Thorax. (Original.)

Dietetic Treatment.—Next to hygienic methods the care of the diet is important. If a nursing infant shows rachitic symptoms the chemical examination of the breast-milk should be made. If we find low proteins the nursing mother or wet-nurse should be given more meat, eggs, and cereals. If, however, conditions exist which prevent proper nursing, the child should be weaned. A properly modified cows' milk adapted for the age and development (see section on "Nutrition") should be substituted. I insist on feeding such children with cereals, such as barley, rice, cream of wheat, sago, farina, etc., and giving them plenty of fresh vegetables, such as spinach, asparagus, peas, and beans. Eggs, white meats, and fish may be given if children are old enough. Fresh fruits must not be forgotten. Butter and cream are valuable adjuncts to the dietary.

Medicinal Treatment.—In addition to the importance of proper feeding we must seek to establish proper metabolism. All the emunctories must be carefully watched. Drug treatment should be directed to supplying the deficient amount of lime in the bones. The glycerophosphate of lime, which has been used by me for several years, in doses of 1 to 5 grains, three times a day, is very useful. Codliver-oil, to which $^{1}/_{200}$ grain of phosphorus is added, has served me very well in some instances. This phosphorized codliver-oil must be freshly prepared, as it deteriorates on standing. Hundreds of children in the crowded sections of the city have been put on the phosphor treatment. When codliver-oil *was added* to the phosphor, good results were noted, not otherwise; so that I believe it is the codliver-oil rather than the phosphor that possesses medicinal virtues.

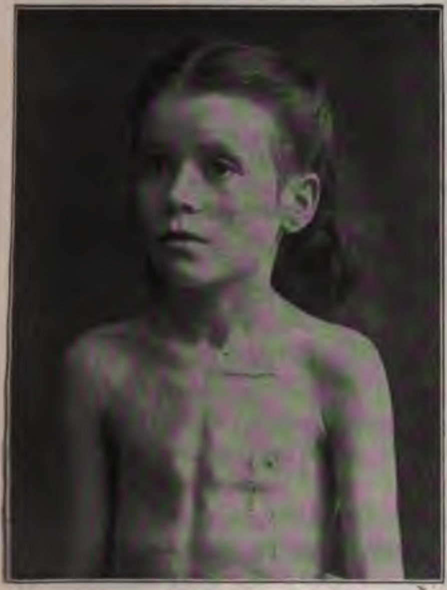


Fig. 99.

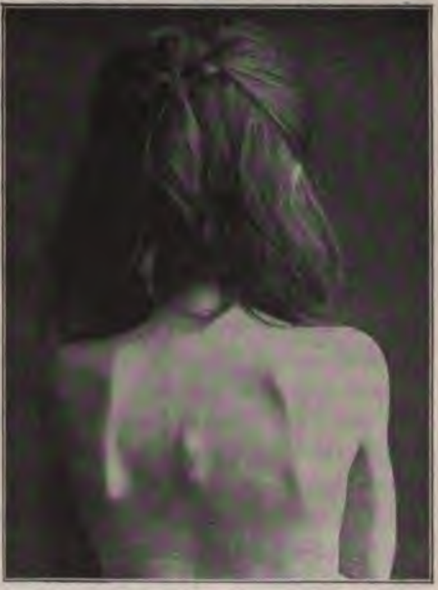


Fig. 100.

Fig. 99.—Rachitic Kyphosis (Spine). Permanent deformity. Rachitic thorax in school girl, 12 years old, showing Harrison's groove, and funnel-shaped depression of sternum.

Fig. 100.—Back View Same Child, Showing Rachitic Kyphosis. This deformity is the permanent result of rickets in infancy. It is to be differentiated from Pott's disease. Note also the curvature of the spine. (Original.)

Fellow's syrup of hypophosphites, arsenic, iron, and strychnine have served me very well, especially when atony of the stomach or dyspeptic conditions existed. The careful regulation of the bowels and good action on the part of the kidneys and skin will greatly aid in modifying rickets when established.

Treatment of Deformities.—*Kyphosis:* In rachitic kyphosis a Bradford frame or a similar appliance is indicated. A spinal brace will sometimes do good. Massage with good friction will develop a weakened spine in some cases, and plaster of Paris jackets may be serviceable. Manual correction of the deformity will aid in the treatment.

History of Rickets in Infancy.—A very anæmic, poorly developed girl. Brought up in a tenement house in the thickly crowded portion of New York City. Was breast-fed during infancy, fifteen months. Had summer complaint. Dentition began at eight months, walking at sixteen months. Very bright mentally. Is very restless at night; nervous, choreic twitching during the day. No mammary development, no evidence of menstruation.

Father and mother of this child are apparently well, though dyspeptic. No evidence of syphilis or tubercular disease. This child has had tonsillar infections several times each year; had diphtheria, measles, and scarlet fever. Has diarrhœa whenever nervous or frightened.

Since instituting gymnastic exercises, the muscles of the back have been greatly strengthened, although the spinal deformity has not been lessened or improved.

The main treatment consisted in fresh air, out-of-door exercise, diet of milk, cream, butter, fruits, cereals, and meats. Stop school and all studies.

Medication, codliver-oil, malt, glycerophosphate of lime and soda, raw eggs. Cool sponging with sea salt. Friction of body after gymnastic movements.

Scoliosis (Lateral Curvature) and Lordosis (Forward Curvature of the Spine).—The management of these conditions is similar to that described for kyphosis.

Cubitus, Varus, and Valgus.—These deformities disappear as a rule without special treatment.

Bow-legs (Genu Varum).—This common rachitic distortion may be congenital or it may be an acquired condition. The treatment consists in support and correction by braces.

Whitman believes that correction by osteotomy or osteoclasis is necessary when children are over 5 years of age. For knock-knees braces are usually necessary. The Thomas knock-knee brace is the most efficient. In some cases osteotomy of the femur just above the epiphyseal line is indicated.

Antero-posterior bow-leg can only be corrected by osteotomy.

Genu Recurvatum (Back-knee).—Whitman states that in its most extreme form it is of congenital origin, and is usually associated with defective development of the anterior thigh muscles and of the patella. In such cases the knee is bent directly backward, and the tibia is often displaced forward upon the femur. In the milder types of back-knee there is simply an abnormal or over-extension caused by laxity of the ligaments and supporting muscles. This form is usually secondary. It is often seen in cases of hip disease after prolonged mechanical treatment. It may be associated with congenital talipes, or it may be the direct result of paralysis of the muscles of the legs, or even of general weakness, as in severe rachitis.

The following are the principal points in the differential diagnosis of rickets and Pott's disease:—

TABLE NO. 38.

Rickets.	*Pott's Disease.*
Deformity not angular.	Angular.
Result of posture.	Result of lesion.
Evidences of rickets elsewhere.	Absent.
In infancy.	Usually later.
In middle and lower part of the spine.	In any part.
The body may be bent forward without discomfort.	Forward flexion causes pain.
The curve is lessened, or it may be obliterated when the trunk is extended.	Never disappears.

Surgical Treatment.—It is always safe advice to consult a surgeon or orthopædist concerning deformities in early life. Very many rachitic deformities due to softened diaphyses can be corrected or modified as described in the treatment previously given. When a brace appears unsatisfactory, then surgery may yield excellent service, but surgery must be used in conjunction with proper nutrition and restorative treatment to secure permanent benefit.

DECOMPOSITION (INFANTILE ATROPHY; MARASMUS, OR WASTING DISEASE).

If the symptoms of dyspepsia are prolonged there is a marked decrease in weight. In addition thereto there is a marked disturbance of the thermic center, and the previous febrile temperature gives place to a subnormal temperature. The pulse is slow, the respiration irregular, and the food tolerance is greatly reduced. The gravity of this condition must be apparent because of the constant loss of weight.

The condition is met with as a result of malassimilation of food. It is really a deficient metabolism, and results in a gradual decline. It is important to note that constitutional disorders, such as tuberculosis or syphilis, are not the causative factors. A von Pirquet test should be made to differentiate this condition from tuberculosis.

Etiology.—The condition is caused by improper feeding, such as to frequent feeding of high-fat formulæ. By far the greater number of cases of atrophy are found in bottle-fed infants. An occasional case may occur as the result of faulty human-milk feeding. If we meet with a case of atrophy in a breast-fed infant, the thing to do is to have a chemical examination made of the breast-milk. If it is found deficient in quality, we must withdraw it and substitute bottle-feeding. If we wish to discard the mother's milk for some reason, it is advisable to secure a wet-nurse. The removal of such cases from the breast to the bottle or from the bottle to the human breast may be necessary to save life.

The true pathology seems to be a failure to assimilate food in infants with improper hygiene, and as a result progressive emaciation takes place.

Symptoms.—When infants suffer with vomiting or diarrhœa, and this condition is allowed to become chronic, then colic and flatulence, associated with constipation, supervene, and the result is a gastrointestinal catarrh. Neglect of this condition means the development of the condition known as atrophy. The infant does not thrive, commences to waste, and unless we realize the condition, and give the proper treatment, the infant will die from exhaustion and inanition. When these cases linger for months they develop rickets. Recovery without treatment is impossible.

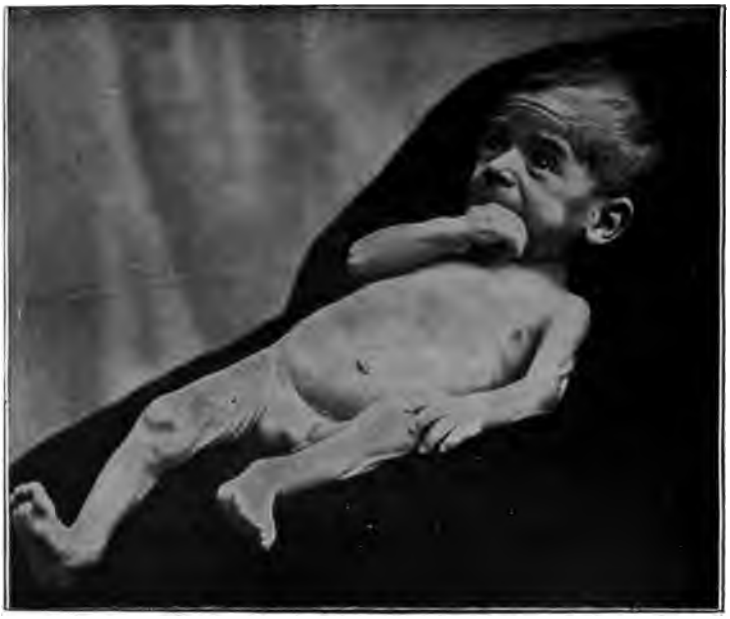


Fig. 101.—Decomposition. The loss of fat causes the skin to hang in loose folds. Note the left forearm and both legs. The forehead is wrinkled. The hand in the mouth is a characteristic symptom of starvation. (Original.)

Prognosis and Course.—The course of this condition depends on the amount of nutrition that can be assimilated. The worst forms of marasmic infants will frequently gain in weight when proper food is given. If the appetite is poor a decided change of air, from the city to the country, or *vice versâ,* will strengthen the infant and restore the appetite. Many an infant's life has been saved by a trip to the seashore or a sea voyage. The outcome of the case depends on judicious feeding, a change of air, and proper hygienic management.

Treatment.—If high-fat formulæ have caused this condition, the treatment consists in lowering the fat percentage of the food. Such cases will do well on skimmed milk. When skimmed milk is given, no sugar should be added. It is difficult to lay all blame on the cream, top-milk, or high-fat formulæ, especially if sugar has been added. In some cases omitting the sugar from the food will be sufficient; other cases require that both fat and sugar be discontinued for a number of weeks or until a tolerance for a small amount of fat and sugar has been established.

It is in this class of cases that the albumin milk or eiweiss milch of Finkelstein renders such good service. By feeding 6 to 8 ounces of this food every four hours for several weeks, the fœtid odor of the stools will disappear and they will gradually assume normal conditions. During successful treatment with albumin milk we must not expect a gain in weight. As long as the fat and especially sugar is withheld we cannot expect a gain in weight.

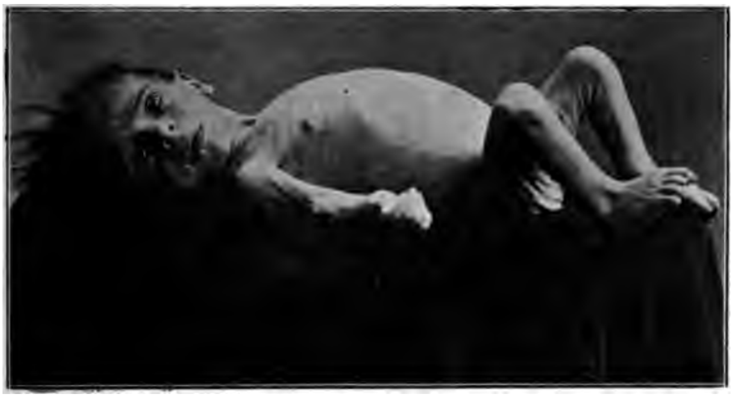


Fig. 102.—Infantile Atrophy. The emaciation is seen on the neck, right arm, the thighs, and legs. The tendons on the right foot are plainly seen. (Original.)

Albumin milk is prepared as follows: A tablespoonful of Simon's essence of rennet (or 2 tablets of rennet) is added to 1 quart of milk, which is then placed in a water-bath of 107° F. for one-half hour. It is then filtered slowly by gravity without any pressure for about one hour through cheesecloth. The coagulum is then washed twice in 1 pint of water through a very fine sieve and forced through by means of a wooden spoon; then 1 pint of buttermilk is added. The chemical analysis of the food shows:—

	Albumin Milk	*Cows' Milk*
Protein	3.00	3.00
Fats	2.50	3.50
Carbohydrates	1.50	4.50
Ash	0.50	0.70

The theory as to the difficult digestibility of cows' milk casein is a thing of the past. Casein, as first shown by the teachings of the Breslau school, is readily digested, even by infants with serious digestive disorders.

The whey experiments have proven that the milk sugar in correlation with the whey salts are the primary disturbing factors, the ensuing abnormal milk-sugar fermentation causing faulty fat digestion.

The high percentage of casein, in correlation with the reduced whey salts and milk-sugar, counteracts the fermentative processes in the intestinal canal. Furthermore, it allows the feeding of a comparatively high percentage of fat. The carbohydrates should be increased by gradual addition of dextrimaltose.

PART V.

DISEASES OF THE HEART, LIVER, SPLEEN, PANCREAS, PERITONEUM, AND GENITO-URINARY TRACT.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY.

THE HEART AND FŒTAL CIRCULATION.

THE circulation of the blood during the whole fœtal period of ante-natal life is the same. From the third to the tenth month the circulation is known as "placental," and during the intervening months it undergoes no marked modifications.

According to Ballantyne,[1] during the neo-fœtal period, it is true the circulation is that of the chorion; but by the end of it there has been a specialization of the circulatory function, and the blood, instead of being sent to the villi over a wide expanse of chorionic surface, is now directed solely to those found over one part of it, that, namely, which is in contact with the decidua serotina, the site of the developing placenta. From the end of the neo-fœtal period onward to the moment of birth, there is the circulation of the placenta.

The essential peculiarity of the placental circulation is the sending of the fœtal blood out of the fœtal body to a specially prepared and extra-corporeal organ (the placenta) for purposes of oxygenation and other less understood chemical changes. This entails simply the presence of an efferent vessel (or vessels) to carry the blood to the extra-corporeal organ and of an afferent vessel to bring it back again.

Changes at Birth.—When the umbilical cord is ligated there is an interruption of the circulation through the umbilical vein and arteries, so that in about ten days after birth the circulation loses its fœtal type and assumes extra-uterine conditions.

The following physiological changes occur:—

(*a*) The conversion of the ductus arteriosus.

(*b*) The ductus venosus into fibrous cords.

(*c*) The closure of the foramen ovale.

(*d*) Changes in the umbilical veins and umbilical arteries, the first forming the round ligament of the liver, the second the true anterior ligament of the bladder and the superior vesical arteries.

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[1] For those interested I would advise reading Ballantyne's book on ante-natal pathology and hygiene.

For some weeks before birth the circulation through the foramen ovale is slight, it being gradually obstructed by the growth of a septum which nearly fills the space at birth. After the first week of extra-uterine life, very little if any blood passes through it, although complete closure of the foramen often does not take place until the middle of the first year. In one-fourth of the autopsies Holt made upon infants under six months of age, minute openings at the margin of the foramen ovale were found. They were usually oblique, and closed by the valvular curtain so as to effectually obstruct the current of blood. The ductus arteriosus is first closed by a clot, which becomes organized and blends with the products of a proliferating arteritis. It is rarely found open after the tenth day, and by the twentieth it is almost invariably obliterated.

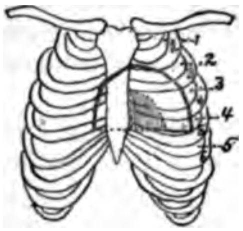

Fig. 103.

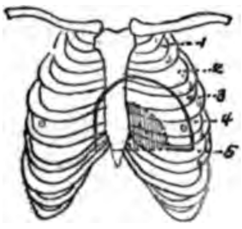

Fig. 104.

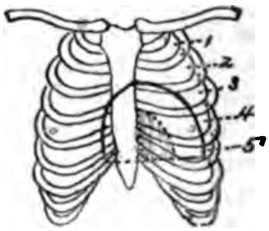

Fig. 105.

Fig. 103.—Note the Position of the Apex Beat in a Very Young Infant; during the first year it is very high, between the fourth and fifth intercostal spaces. It is most often in the fourth.

Fig. 104.—The Apex Beat in a Child About 6 Years Old. It is lower than in an infant. Usually found at the fifth intercostal space.

Fig. 105.—The Apex Beat in a Child About 12 Years of Age is found between the fifth and sixth intercostal space.

The heavy black lines denote the area of relative dullness. The small shaded areas denote the area of absolute dullness. (After Unger.)

THE HEART.[1]

Size of the Heart.—The relative size of the heart is greater in children than in later life. It is smallest about the seventh year.

TABLE No. 39.—*Weight of the Heart (Boyd).*

Age	Grams.
At birth	20.6
One and one-half years	44.5
Three years	60.2
Five and one-half years	72.8
Ten and one half years	122.6
Seventeen years	233.7

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[1] Heart murmurs are described on page 330.

The anatomical differences in the child are:—

(*a*) A more horizontal position of the heart than in the adult.

(*b*) The diaphragm being higher, the heart is higher in the thorax.

(*c*) The ribs in a child are more horizontal than in the adult.

(*d*) The liver in young children is larger than in adults, and as the heart is in close contact with the liver the area of cardiac dullness merges into that of the liver dullness below.

Tension.—The degree of contraction of the vascular muscles determines the size of the artery and (to a great extent) the tension of the blood within it. But if the heart is acting feebly there may be so little blood in the arteries that even when tightly contracted they do not subject the blood within them to any considerable degree of tension. "To *produce high tension,* then, we need two factors: a certain *degree of power in the heart-muscles,* and contracted arteries. *To produce low tension* we need only *relaxation of the arteries,* and the heart *may be either strong or weak.*

"*The pulse of low tension* collapses between beats, so that the artery is less palpable than usual or cannot be felt at all. Normally, the artery can just be made out between beats, and any considerable lowering of arterial tension makes it altogether impalpable except during the period of the primary wave and of the dicrotic wave, which is often very well marked in pulses of low tension."

"*The pulse of high tension* is perceptible between beats as a *distinct cord which can be rolled between the fingers,* like one of the tendons of the wrist. It is also difficult to compress in most cases, but this may depend rather on the heart's power than on the degree of vascular tension. The pulse wave is usually of moderate height or low, and falls away slowly with little or no dicrotic wave.

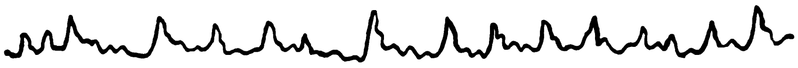


Fig. 106.—Irregular Pulse, Low Tension, from a Case of Mitral Regurgitation. (Original.)

Mode of Examination of the Heart.—The ear should be used, rather than an instrument in listening to the heart sounds in struggling children. In children with eruptive fevers it is safer to use a phenendoscope. For this purpose the Bowles phenendoscope (Fig. 107) is highly recommended, as it has a flat attachment which can conveniently be placed in the axilla or to the posterior portion of the lung without raising the child from the bed. These advantages are important inasmuch as we frequently can examine the child while asleep.

The following aphorisms are drawn from Crandall:

1. The apex lies higher in the chest and further to the left than in the adult.

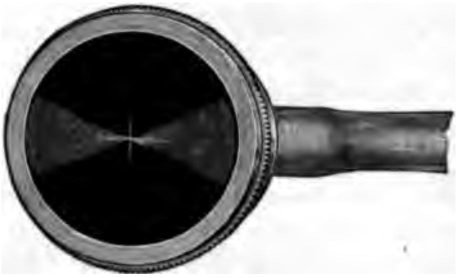


Fig. 107.—Natural Size of Bowles Stethoscope for Examining Children.

2. The apex beat is hard to detect in the infant. In the child palpation shows this easier than in the adult.

3. The area of dullness is comparatively large. (There are three stages in infancy and childhood during which differences are noted in relative and absolute dullness.) (See Figs. 103, 104, and 105.)

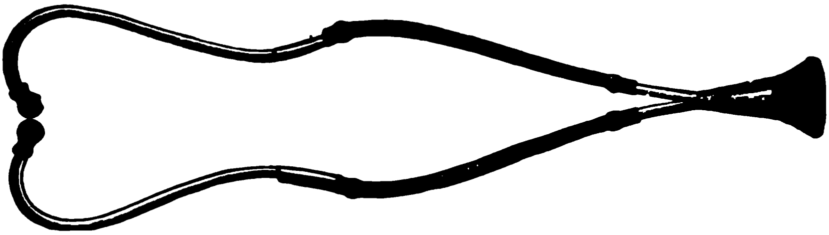


Fig. 108.—A Convenient Stethoscope for Children. Made by G. Tiemann & Co. and by George Ermold, New York City.

4. Murmurs are heard over comparatively large areas. A study of differences in the quality of the sounds and points of greatest intensity will help us here.

5. The rate may be increased and the rhythm altered by slight causes.

6. In rachitic children and in those affected by empyema or pleural effusions and adhesions the apex may appear in an abnormal position.

7. Prominence of the precordia is sometimes marked. Normally the loudest sound is the first sound at the apex; the weakest sound is the second sound at the aortic cartilage. This accords with my experience,

though it does not seem to be generally recognized that the pulmonic second sound is in early life stronger than the aortic sound.

TABLE No. 40—*Classification of Cardiac Diseases.*

Time of Occurrence.	Nature of the Affection.		Clinical Disease.
Intra-uterine existence or very early infancy.	Developmental or Inflammatory.		Various congenital affections.
Extra-uterine existence (infancy or childhood).	Various motor or sensory phenomena unaccompanied by sensible changes of structure.		Functional diseases of the heart.
	Organic,	Mechanical.	Dilatation, Hypertrophy, Alone or as accompaniment of inflammatory change.
		Inflammatory.	Pericarditis, acute or chronic. Endocarditis, acute or chronic. Myocarditis, acute or chronic.
	Miscellaneous.		Effusions (non-inflammatory). Granulomata. Neoplasms.

CHAPTER II.

DISEASES OF THE HEART.

REFLEX SYMPTOMS OF THE HEART.

Tachycardia.—Severe palpitation of the heart (tachycardia) frequently results from excitement or fright in children. The heart on auscultation will be found normal, and the only symptom noticeable will be an exaggerated pulse-rate with an increase of twenty to forty beats per minute. It is usually a neurotic manifestation. As a rule the prognosis is good. The treatment consists in removing the cause if possible.

Bradycardia.—A slowness of the heart's action and a slow pulse-rate are occasionally met with in children. It may occur in health, although very rarely without pathological significance. I have usually seen bradycardia in septic cases of diphtheria at my service in the Willard Parker Hospital, and in the septic type of scarlet fever at the Riverside Hospital. When bradycardia is seen during the course of acute infectious diseases it should be regarded as a very serious symptom (see chapter on "Diphtheria").

POINTS TO BE NOTED IN THE DIAGNOSIS OF DISEASES OF THE HEART.

HEART SOUNDS AND MURMURS.

First Sound.—*In infectious fevers* there is an increase in the length and intensity of the first sound heard at the apex.

In continued fevers causing degeneration of the heart muscles there is a shortening and weakening of the first sound heard at the apex.

In exhaustive heart strain seen in myocarditis the first sound is feeble and merges into the second sound. This condition is met with in diphtheria, scarlet fever, and typhoid, although any disorder of the body which devitalizes may cause it.

Fatty heart, emphysema, or *pericardial effusion* may give a feeble mitral first sound.

Pulsus Paradoxus.—The heart-beats during inspiration are more frequent, but less full, than during expiration. This condition may be observed in healthy children during sleep.

An irregular heart's action may occur during sleep in healthy children. The heart's action is frequently influenced by inspiration and expiration.

Systolic Murmurs.—There are two murmurs possible for each orifice, or eight in all. Of these, four, namely, mitral systolic, mitral presystolic, aortic systolic, and aortic diastolic, are most likely to occur, with a frequency about in the order of their enumeration. The necessary changes being made, a like distribution applies to the right side; although a pulmonary lesion is almost unknown, except as a congenital affection, while disease of the tricuspid valve is less rare.

Every murmur is determined by the time of its occurrence, the direction which it takes, and the location of its greatest intensity. The blood is driven from the left ventricle, during systole, through the aortic orifice, and, meanwhile, all communication with the auricle of this side is cut off by a closure of the mitral valve. But should the current encounter an obstacle at the aortic opening in its onward course, it would be thrown into confusion in the aorta, from which a murmur would arise and be carried upward. Hence this bruit is loudest at the aortic area, systolic in rhythm, and extends in the direction of the carotids.

Should the mitral valve fail to close at this time the blood would escape into the left auricle, as well as run through the proper channel, and be set in vibration by the impeding flaps at the mitral orifice. Here the bruit generated by this disturbance is borne with the reflux into the auricle, and thence to the back, and also by conduction through the apex to the front. Moreover, it is *loudest in front and at the apex,* because the heart is nearer the anterior than the posterior surface of the chest. Therefore, this murmur is *most intense at the mitral area, systolic in rhythm, commonly diffused to the left, and often audible near the inferior angle of the left scapula.*

In a similar manner during systole, the blood is being propelled by the right ventricle through the pulmonary aperture, and likewise the tricuspid valve is closed or very nearly so. Thus supposing that an *obstruction were to occur at the pulmonary orifice,* there would be a *systolic murmur, with point of maximum intensity in the pulmonary area and extension upward to the left, but not into the carotids.*

In the event of *tricuspid insufficiency,* part of the blood would flow back into the right auricle, and give rise to a *systolic bruit, best heard in the tricuspid area,* and *spreading upward to the right.*

Anæmic Murmurs.—An anæmic murmur is always systolic in rhythm, loudest at the base of the heart, and often as audible in the aortic as the pulmonary area. With anæmia pure and simple there should be no cardiac hypertrophy.

Diastolic Murmurs.—In diastole the aortic and pulmonary valves are closed, and the auriculo-ventricular valves open, while blood is flowing from the auricles to the ventricles. The vermicular contraction, styled cardiac systole, which was initiated in the veins and taken up by the auricles, has gone through the ventricles and reached the large arteries, wherein the recoil of the current finds a point of support at the closed semilunar cusps.

If the function of one or more of these cusps in the aortic valve be destroyed, each contraction of the artery will drive a portion of its contents back into the left ventricle; and the vibrations generated in this return stream against the disorganized valve will cause a bruit that is *aortic* in origin and *diastolic* in rhythm.

Though this murmur of insufficiency is conveyed along the arteries a varying distance in the efflux, its main direction is backward with the reflux; not so much in the line of the ventricle as down the sternum, owing to the close proximity of this bone to the aortic valves, and its superiority over the heart as a conducting medium of sound. *The point of maximum intensity of this bruit is more often at the lower end of the sternum than in the second intercostal space.* Granting that the same thing could happen to the pulmonary valves, a *diastolic murmur would be audible in the pulmonary area, but with an extension downward only.*

An *aortic systolic murmur is loudest in the second right intercostal space close to the sternum,* and a *diastolic bruit is heard loudest at the lower extremity of this bone.* In some instances these murmurs are heard only at mid-sternum, about on a level with the third costal cartilages. In others they are most intense in the second, and even the third intercostal space, close to the left edge of the sternum. Upon the exclusion of aneurism, a bruit within these precincts is presumably aortic and not pulmonary, especially if the right ventricle is unenlarged.

Pericardial Murmurs.—A pericardial is distinguished from a pleuritic friction mainly by the time and locality of its occurrence. *Grating in the pericardium obviously is limited to the præcordial region, and is regulated by the action of the heart.* That of the *pleura* is most prone to take place *in the infra-axillary regions,* where pulmonary mobility is extensive. *It is dependent upon the respiratory movements.*

Venous Murmurs.—In quality venous murmurs are blowing, cooing, and sometimes musical; and from the frequent resemblance of the noise to that of a humming-top, it has been denominated *venous hum.*

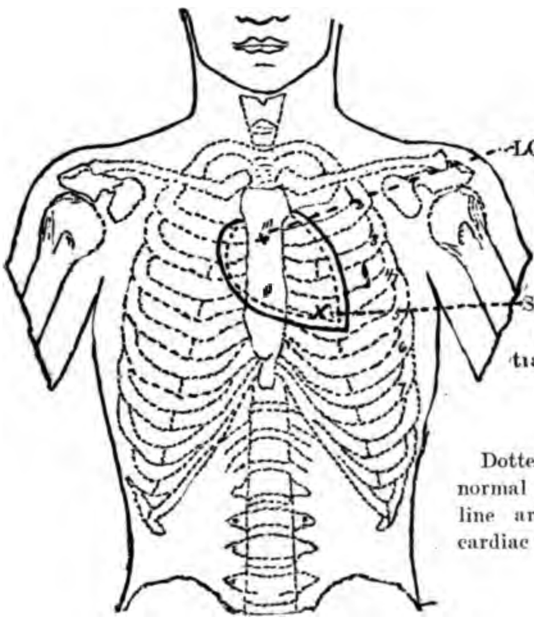
It is usually most *distinct at the lower third of the external jugular veins, and more distinct in the right than in the left side.* It is always continuous in rhythm, but the intensity is often remittent because of the periodical acceleration of the stream by the action of the heart. The direction is downward and inward along the subclavian and right innominate veins, so that it is now and then audible through the aortic area, and can be separated with a little care from the aortic sounds as well as from the respiratory murmur. *When there is a question as to whether or not a given bruit is venous or arterial, pressure upon the vein above the stethoscope will stop the downward current and silence the venous hum.*

Cerebral Blowing.—A blowing, systolic murmur, of variable intensity, is frequently heard over the anterior fontanel and sometimes over the carotids of children, between the ages of three months and six years.[1]

PULMONARY STENOSIS (CONGENITAL HEART LESION: BLUE BABY).

A. N. H., born May 7, 1904, was first seen by me when seven months old, in consultation with Dr. E. D. Lederman.

Family History—It was the third child born with natural labor. The mother has had one still-birth and one miscarriage. Has one child 5 years old in good health with no evidence of heart trouble. Both father and mother are in excellent health, and there is no evidence of heart or lung trouble, and no specific disease on either side. This child has been cyanotic. The toe nails and finger nails show typical clubbing and also blueness. On the slightest exertion the infant's skin assumes a very dark blue color. Dyspnœa is also present. The cutaneous circulation is very poor and the nurse informed me that for one-half hour after a tub bath there is an increased evidence of cyanosis.



LOUD SYSTOLIC MURMUR.

SYSTOLIC MURMUR. (very forcible thrill transmitted on palpation.)

Dotted inner line denotes normal area of heart. Shaded line around heart—area of cardiac dullness on percussion.

Fig. 109.—Case of Pulmonary Stenosis—Congenital—Blue Baby. (Original.)

A loud blowing systolic murmur could be made out in the second intercostal space. There was also a weakness of the pulmonary second sound. The area of dullness was increased so that a right-sided hypertrophy undoubtedly existed. The murmur was not transmitted to the vessels of the neck.

The infant was breast-fed by its mother for four and one-half months. There has been a tendency to constipation. The stool has been green and contained white curds at times. During the last few months the feeding consisted of equal parts of barley water and milk. When seen again the appetite was poor. The tongue slightly coated. The general condition one of restlessness by day and insomnia by night. The infant was very sensitive to cold and had a diffuse bronchitis associated with acute rhinitis. I ordered:—

---

[1] I am indebted to S. S. Burt & E. Le Fevre for some points in the above article.

℞ Raw milk	12 ounces
Rice water	24 ounces
Granulated sugar	6 drachms
Lime water	6 drachms
Peptogenic milk powder	2 measures

Divide in six bottles. Feed every 3½ hours.

As the food agreed very well, I ordered 1 ounce more of milk to the total quantity every second day until the infant received full milk undiluted.

I ordered to relieve the dyspnœa and regulate the heart:—

℞ Sodium iodide	15 grains
Sparteine sulphate	3 grains
Elix. lactopeptin	2 ounces

Half-teaspoonful three times a day.

The progress of the case was excellent. When first seen by me there was no evidence of dentition. At the ninth month the child had two teeth and showed signs of general development.

Prognosis.—As a rule the outcome of these cases is bad, although I have known a child with a pulmonary stenosis for the last twelve years. He is now 18 years old. These cases have a tendency to pulmonary disease, and are especially prone to develop tuberculosis.

Treatment.—Peroxide of hydrogen or dioxygen in 5- to 10- drop doses in water, given several times a day, will liberate oxygen. Some cases will show a rapid improvement in the cyanosis during this treatment.

Persistence of the Ductus Arteriosus Botalli.

During the first four weeks after the birth of an infant, the ductus arteriosus is closed by an overgrowth of the cells in its inner wall. When abnormal conditions exist, such as septic infection of the new-born with thrombi, a breaking down of the cell growth takes place and results in the duct remaining patent. This may also result from defective respiration and an anomalous pulmonary circulation.

The clinical symptoms of the patency of the ductus arteriosus are rapid hypertrophy and dilatation of the right ventricle, with co-existing dilatation of the pulmonary artery. There is also an increased area of cardiac dullness. Loud systolic murmurs are heard all over the chest, and a thrill of the anterior chest wall can be felt. Protrusion of the upper part of the sternum—dyspnœa rarely—cyanosis and a deathly pallor.

Gerhardt states that dullness is found at the border of the second rib, in which region the systolic pulsation of the pulmonary artery can be felt.

M. G., four months old. Was two weeks prematurely born. She was the second child. The first child died of diphtheria; it was also prematurely born, and died when its mother was four months pregnant with the present baby. The mother had a normal pregnancy, but was greatly troubled with headaches and dizziness, and suffered mentally over the loss of the first child.

The Baby.—When the baby was six weeks old the mother first noticed that it breathed with difficulty. It had been vomiting continuously. Diarrhœa has existed for ten weeks. There is an occasional cough. Since two weeks the baby appears colicky and cries with apparent pain.

Stat. Præs.—A pale, very anæmic looking child, with large fontanel, somewhat depressed, the size of a silver quarter.

The Eyes.—There was a slight exophthalmus. The nose, somewhat depressed. Slight coryza.

The Heart.—The area of dullness extends from the right side to the left border of the sternum, corresponding to the lower border of the third rib. The apex is at the lower border of the fifth rib, immediately under the mamilla. The heart is somewhat enlarged toward the left side.

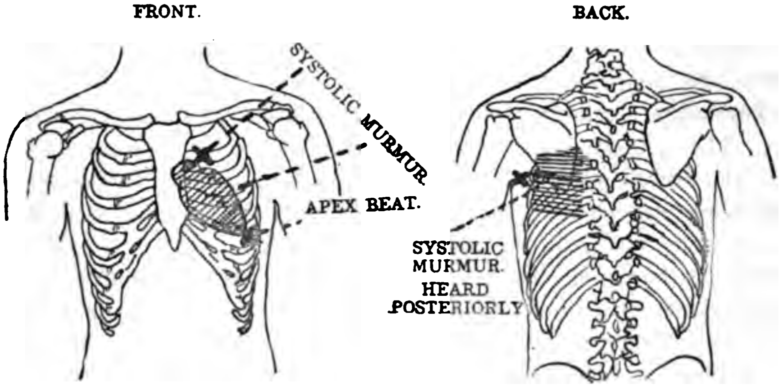


Fig. 110.—Child with Persistence of the Ductus Arteriosus Botalli. X, Loud murmur audible—blowing presystolic. (Original.)

Auscultation.—A loud presystolic murmur is heard over the whole area of the heart. There is marked abdominal respiration. The lungs are normal in percussion. Moist râles can be heard over both lungs.

The Abdomen.—The abdomen is distended and is tympanitic on percussion. It feels doughy on palpation. There is no cyanosis of the fingers or toes. There is a mild dyspnœa. The adipose tissue is not very apparent. There is marked prominence of the subcutaneous veins of the scalp.

The clinical history of the mother did not give any evidence of miscarriage, no syphilis, and no family tuberculosis.

ENDOCARDITIS.

This disease is of frequent occurrence during infancy and childhood. Congenital endocarditis has frequently been reported, so that it is assumed it must have existed during fœtal life.

Etiology.—Gerhardt and Bednar believe that the disease occurs quite frequently in young children, although the greatest frequency is noted between the sixth and the twelfth years. Acute rheumatism is very frequently followed by endocarditis. Chorea is also frequently accompanied by endocardial disease. Scarlet fever, measles, variola, varicella, diphtheria, typhoid, and tuberculosis, according to Reimer, are frequently followed by or associated with endocarditis. When endocarditis follows pneumonia, pleurisy, or bronchitis, it is due to the invasion of pathogenic bacteria. These are the staphylococcus, according to Frankel and Sanger, and the pneumococcus, according to Netter and Weichselbaum. The germs enter the deeper portion of the pericardium through the epithelium, causing inflammatory conditions. It is quite likely that endocarditis is caused by such invasion in acute joint inflammations, in phlegmonous periostitis, lymphangitis, pericarditis, myocarditis, and puerperal infections. Bouchut has reported cases of endocarditis following erythema nodosum and hereditary syphilis. Von Dusch has reported endocarditis following extensive burns of the hand.

Pathology.—The lesions occur most frequently on the valves of the heart. The valves on the left side of the heart are most frequently affected; hence, the mitral is the seat of the lesions more often than the aortic valve. In studying a series of these cases given by Steffen, we find that about 4 per cent. show lesions in the aortic valve.

The pathological changes consist in hyperæmia, swelling, and an infiltration of normal cells or new connective-tissue cells having a grayish-white color. There is a breaking down of the epithelium, besides which wart-like excrescences called vegetations are formed on the free border of the thickened valves (endocarditis verrucosa). The result caused by the last-named condition is that the vegetations prevent a proper closing of the valves, which latter results in insufficiency and stenosis. Fibrinous deposits are frequently noted on the valves, and on being carried with the circulation may lodge in the cerebral arteries, causing either emboli or infarctions, according to Virchow. The last-named condition is exceptional in acute endocarditis.

Symptoms.—Endocarditis, whether primary or secondary, begins with fever. Not infrequently the temperature rises to 102°, sometimes 103° F., and there is a corresponding increase in the pulse-rate. The pulse is rapid, irregular, and of low tension. Cyanosis is sometimes present, especially so if myocarditis accompanies the attack. Sometimes a child will develop endocarditis without any special symptoms being present. Not until the heart is examined will the condition be diagnosed. Thus an important rule which has been previously mentioned is the necessity of always listening to the heart when a diagnosis is uncertain. Frequently a few days will pass without specific symptoms being recognized. A child will show evidence of malaise and suddenly the characteristic blowing systolic murmur will be heard at the apex. The murmur is usually transmitted to the left and can also be heard behind. It is frequently accompanied by the thrill and by an accentuated pulmonic second sound. When dilatation results there will be a cardiac insufficiency. The murmur may gradually increase in intensity and in the same manner it may diminish until it is inaudible. When fever suddenly appears during the course of an attack of chorea, endocarditis should be suspected. In some cases dyspnœa may be present.

The diagnosis is frequently obscure because a child will have no symptoms of a definite nature. If, however, we are patient and carefully examine the heart, we may be rewarded by making the diagnosis. It is important to examine all the organs of the body before making a positive diagnosis, if obscure or no cardiac symptoms exist.

A cardiac murmur heard during an acute attack of rheumatism, or during the course of an acute infectious disease, is usually indicative of endocarditis, especially if on pressure with the stethoscope the murmur remains permanently. Associated with the murmur there is usually a rise in temperature.

Inspection will always show a rapid and diffuse apex-beat.

Palpation will confirm this observation and may reveal a strong but irregular heart action.

Percussion is usually negative.

Physical signs are due to (*a*) insufficiency, (*b*) roughening, (*c*) stenosis, depending on changes in the valves. The character of the murmur depends on the valve involved and the lesion of the valve. In *mitral regurgitation we have a systolic murmur with greatest intensity over the apex.* It is *usually transmitted to the side, and also heard behind the sternum.*

Differential Diagnosis.—In *mitral stenosis we have a presystolic murmur with the greatest intensity over the mitral area.*

In *aortic regurgitation we have a diastolic murmur with the greatest intensity over the aortic valve, and transmitted down the sternum.*

In *aortic roughening we have a systolic murmur with the greatest intensity over the aortic valve.* Distinct murmurs can be heard at the valves of the right side.

An embolism in some portion of the body is frequently the sign of a heart lesion. If the embolus reaches the brain, hæmiplegia is the usual result. If it reaches the lungs severe dyspnœa may result. An embolus in the mesentery may result in diarrhœa. If in the kidneys, hæmaturia may result. When it reaches the limbs it means an obstructed circulation.

Prognosis and Course.—Endocarditis if carefully managed with rest and strengthening diet will improve. I have seen children with endocardial murmurs improve after a few weeks, when put to bed amid quiet surroundings. As a rule the prognosis is bad and the course of the disease tends to become chronic. In giving an opinion as to the outcome of a case of valvular lesion, we must remember that we are dealing with a damaged heart, and that months or years may pass before recovery can take place. A fatal outcome will be the result of carelessness or mismanagement.

Treatment.—Nothing will do more good than absolute rest in bed. Small doses of codein or Dover's powder act very well. If endocarditis accompanies or follows rheumatism, then the salicylates should be given. An ice-bag over the heart is frequently useful. If the pulse is very rapid or the heart's action is feeble, then digitalis or strophanthus should be given.

The tincture or an infusion of digitalis made from English leaves is the best. A point to remember is that digitalis has frequently an accumulative effect so that the pulse must be carefully guarded during its administration. When this is the case the administration of the tincture of strophanthus will be found very serviceable. In some children digitalis will be badly borne owing to its irritant action on the gastric mucous membrane. In such cases sparteine or strophanthus should be prescribed.

Adrenalin chloride solution taken internally increases the blood pressure, stimulates the heart, and retards the pulse-rate. It is better than digitalis, as it does not irritate the gastric mucous membrane, and it is non-cumulative.

℞ Sol. adrenalin chloride 1-1000
Infants of 1 year, 1-5000, made with normal saline solution.
Dose: Five to 10 drops, three times a day, gradually increased until effect on pulse is manifested.

In some cases marked benefit will follow the use of iodide of sodium in doses of 1 to 5 grains, according to age. The iodides seem to steady the heart's action. I have found excellent results following their use.

Malignant Endocarditis.

This is commonly called ulcerative endocarditis. It is a rare condition in childhood. Harris reports a case in a child 4 years old. The type of the disease is similar to that noted in adults. This condition is rarely primary. It occurs with scarlet fever, erysipelas, pneumonia, rheumatism, and septicæmia, in which bacterial invasions of streptococci or pneumococci occur. These germs are found in the endocardium.

Pathology.—Vegetations usually occur with ulcerations in the cavities and on the valves. Suppuration of the deeper tissues with abscess formation is frequently noted. Osler states that the different parts of the heart are affected in the following manner: mitral valve, aortic, mitral and aortic combined, tricuspid and pulmonic valves, and the cardiac wall. The secondary lesions of malignant endocarditis are due to emboli. These are most frequent in the spleen and kidney, next in the brain, intestines, and skin, and, if the right side of the heart is diseased, in the lungs. These emboli lead to the formation of red or white infarctions, to hæmorrhages, or to multiple abscesses in the various organs and tissues in which they lodge.

Symptoms.—It is extremely difficult to diagnose malignant endocarditis. The presence of symptoms of pyæmia or septicæmia, associated with a heart murmur, usually renders the diagnosis positive. There is a remittent type of fever, occasionally delirium and extreme prostration. The cerebral symptoms frequently suggest meningitis. There is sometimes a faint mitral regurgitant murmur. Not infrequently it is entirely absent. The spleen is usually enlarged. Hemiplegia as well as hæmaturia and rapid swelling of the spleen, or possibly symptoms of pneumonia, are frequently the result of emboli.

Diagnosis.—This is at times extremely difficult. An examination of the blood for plasmodia will usually be the means of excluding malaria if the same is suspected.

Prognosis and Course.—The rapidity of the onset and the malignancy of the disease go hand in hand. The outcome is usually fatal.

Treatment.—In addition to rest and a supporting, stimulating diet, nothing but relief of individual symptoms by routine treatment can be given.

PERICARDITIS.[1]

This disease may exist with or without myocarditis or endocardial involvement. Large effusions occur more readily in children than in adults.

Etiology and Causes.—Rheumatism is the most frequent cause of pericarditis. Apparent mild forms of rheumatism, such as are frequently called "growing pains" by the laity, are quite often complicated by pericarditis. In this manner the existence of the rheumatism preceding the pericarditis is strikingly brought out.

Pericarditis is rarely a primary condition. Septic infection of the umbilicus occasionally causes this condition.

Tuberculosis, scarlet fever, diphtheria, measles, typhoid, and influenza frequently precede a pericarditis.

Baginsky found purulent pericarditis associated with phlegmonous erysipelas, grave forms of angina, caries of the ribs, fibrinous pneumonia, bronchopneumonia, gastroenteritis, furunculosis, phlegmon of the throat, and empyema. It not infrequently follows kidney disease and scurvy.

Pericarditis is met with at any age. It has been met with in the fœtus, according to Billard, Bednar, Hüter, and Steffen.

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[1] The anatomical outlines are illustrated and described in the article on "The Heart and Circulation." See "Introductory," Part V.

Bacteriology.—We most frequently meet with a staphylococcus aureus or streptococci, bacterium coli, and the diplococcus pneumoniæ.

Pathology.—Pericarditis may be divided into:—

(*a*) Plastic pericarditis.

(*b*) Pericarditis with serous or purulent effusion.

(*c*) Adherent pericarditis.

Any of the above-mentioned varieties consists of an inflammatory affection involving the serous covering of the heart and its reflection on the inner surface of the pericardial sac.

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—The *acute condition* begins with fever reaching as high as 104° F. in some instances. Associated with this there is pain in the præcordial region. Dyspnœa is present. There may be left pleurothotonos (a bending of the body to one side). The pulse is usually rapid. When there is effusion the child will complain of either very sharp pains or merely a sense of heaviness and discomfort. Syncope, singultus, and severe manifestations are present in the severer types of the disease. Not infrequently there may be delirium, twitching, and cerebral symptoms simulating meningitis. When effusions are abundant, cyanosis may occur.

The physical signs resemble those of adults. In dry pericarditis a double friction sound is heard over the præcordial space. The friction sounds may vary in intensity. It may be a grating sound or it may be a weaker rubbing sound. The friction sound or murmur is usually loudest at the base of the heart. Its intensity depends on the change of position so that it is louder when the child sits up or when it exerts itself as in walking or bending. When the child is quiet or lies on its back the friction sound is weaker.

When a large area of the heart is involved, the friction murmur will also be heard with great intensity at the apex. When a child is placed in the knee-elbow position, the apex beat which could not be palpated may reappear. This is an important symptom of exudative pericarditis.

The pericardial friction sound may be purely systolic at the beginning of the disease; thus we must differentiate it from an endocardial murmur. Its maximum intensity is at the base and it is not transmitted beyond the præcordial region, whereas in acute mitral endocarditis we have the maximum intensity of the systolic murmur at the apex. It is transmitted to the side, and heard also posteriorly at the angle of the scapula. Friction sounds disappear as serum is poured out and reappear as it is absorbed. The sound is not transmitted and is independent of the respiratory movement. If effusion takes place the apex-beat will be found displaced, sometimes upward and outward, or indistinct; in some instances it cannot be found at all. There may be bulging of the chest wall. The intercostal spaces become very prominent. On palpation there is an absence of vocal fremitus over an area usually occupied by the lung.

Percussion gives an area of marked dullness or flatness of triangular shape, the base being below and the apex above. The normal area of cardiac dullness is increased in all directions, and this dullness extends beyond the limits of the heart. On auscultation the heart sounds are feeble and distant. Endocardial murmurs may also be present. In infants physical signs are often entirely wanting, or the normal sounds may be feeble, distant, or absent.

The usual duration of acute pericarditis is from one to three weeks. The ordinary dry form, with the resulting adhesions, may be followed by a *subacute or chronic form* of the disease. In the serofibrinous form the serum is usually absorbed quite promptly, and only adhesions are left or a chronic inflammation follows, with exacerbations in each recurrence of rheumatism. In the purulent form of the disease in young children, death is the most frequent termination. If the pus is evacuated or spontaneous opening takes place, there may be recovery, but always with more or less extensive adhesions remaining.

Prognosis.—The prognosis should always be looked upon as very grave. Steffen states that out of 35 cases only 6 recovered. When this disease follows pyæmia, or when it is a sequela to the acute infectious diseases, the prognosis is very bad. When it is associated with rheumatism the ultimate results, by reason of adhesions and dilatation, are usually very serious.

Treatment.—Children affected with acute pericarditis should be put to bed and kept quiet. An ice-bag placed over the heart and small doses of opium or Dover's powder seem to steady the heart's action. The value of aconite in this disease must not be forgotten, especially when we have excessive heart's action. Very bad effects have been noted by me when either pilocarpine or jaborandi was given. The specific effect of salicylate of soda, salol, or salophen must be remembered if due to rheumatism. If the salicylates irritate the gastric mucosa, then inunctions with salicylic preparations such as mesotan or rheumasan may be given three times a day. Phenacetin in 2- to 3- grain doses may be given every three hours if the child complains of pain and if fever is present. Good results may frequently be had from salophen in 2- to 3- grain doses.

Aspiration of the Pericardium.—When symptoms of collapse, cyanosis, irregular pulse, and severe dyspnœa are present, then aspiration may do good. If, on aspiration, we find pus present, an incision should be made and drainage should be used as we would in a case of empyema. The proper place to puncture the pericardium is a point a little to the left of the border of the sternum in the fifth intercostal space, the needle being directed upward and outward. It must be remembered that by this means only can relief be expected. Keating states that "of 18 cases punctured only 4 recovered."

Chronic Pericarditis with Adhesions.

When children suffer with repeated attacks of rheumatism complicated by pericarditis, a chronic pericarditis frequently remains. Holt describes a case of a child sixteen months old in which the pericardial sac was completely obliterated. Associated with this condition we frequently have chronic myocarditis, hypertrophy, dilatation, and valvular lesions, so that no portion of the heart muscle or its lining membrane is normal.

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—According to Broadbent, there is a contraction seen behind in the infrascapular region, sometimes on the left, sometimes on the right, side in the region of the eleventh or twelfth rib. Anteriorly we have the characteristic sign. It is a systolic retraction of the chest at or near the apex of the heart, sometimes at the tip of the sternum. This is due to the external pericardial adhesions, and is often better made out by palpation than by inspection. After the systole there is a rapid rebound, known as the *diastolic shock*. A collapse of the cervical veins during the diastole of the heart, known as Friedreich's sign, is also seen. Sometimes we see an inspiratory swelling (Kussmaul). In addition, the pulsus paradoxus is significant of the presence of pericardial adhesions, or rather of the dilatation that succeeds the adhesions. The pulse is small and feeble during inspiration, assuming greater strength during the period of expiration.

Percussion shows an increase in the cardiac dullness in all directions. The position of the apex and the percussion outline of the heart do not change with the posture of the patient, and the cardiac dullness is but little affected by full inspiration. A systolic murmur is often present. The diagnosis of adherent pericardium always presents difficulties, but it can be made with tolerable certainty in a considerable portion of the cases. On account of the enlargement of the heart and the frequency of murmurs, it is usually mistaken for valvular disease. The lesion is a permanent one and tends to increase. If a child suffers with valvulitis and the *symptoms do not yield to digitalis*, then *adhesive pericarditis should be suspected.*

Treatment.—There is no known method of treatment which will modify or improve this condition, excepting a supporting diet with absolute rest in bed and general restorative treatment. It is very important to watch the emunctories and stimulate them if their action is sluggish.

Tuberculosis of the Pericardium.

This condition is rarely met with as a primary process; it is chiefly met with as a secondary process. It usually partakes of a general tuberculous process in which all the organs of the body participate, among them the pericardium.

Diagnosis.—The diagnosis of this condition depends on the symptoms which usually accompany pericarditis. The tubercular nature of the disease must depend on the presence of tubercle bacilli in the exudation, although Unger denies the possibility of making such a diagnosis. Most probably a positive diagnosis will be made—as in many obscure lesions—*post mortem.*

The treatment is the same as that previously described in the article on "Acute Pericarditis."

HYDROPERICARDIUM.

Occasionally we meet with cases in which the symptoms of dyspnœa and cyanosis rapidly develop. Steffen maintains that such alarming symptoms frequently occur within a few hours, and that the same will sometimes disappear under appropriate treatment in a few days.

Pathology.—A transudation of serous liquid in the pericardium without inflammatory process is usually a secondary condition in which dropsical effusions appear. Usually hydræmic conditions of the blood, such as the result of long-continued fevers in infectious diseases, tuberculosis among others, predispose to this condition.

The prognosis depends upon the cause leading to this condition.

The treatment is chiefly restorative, and will depend on maintaining the strength of the child by careful diet and hygiene.

MYOCARDITIS.

An inflammatory condition involving the heart muscles; may be either acute or chronic. It occurs as (*a*) parenchymatous, (*b*) interstitial. Steffen has reported 33 cases. It is met with more often in boys than in girls.

This affection is very frequently seen during the convalescence of diphtheria. It is also a frequent complication of scarlet fever. I have met this complication in the wards of the Willard Parker and Riverside Hospitals.

Causes.—When it is primary it is due either to rheumatism, congenital syphilis, or tuberculosis. Secondary, it is due to endocarditis, pericarditis, toxins from infectious fevers, or phosphoric, arsenic, or lead poisoning. Traumatism has also caused myocarditis.

Pathology.—The heart muscles appear pale, soft, and friable. The whole heart is not always affected; certain portions may show evidences of degeneration and fatty infiltration, while another portion may be normal. The myocardium is very susceptible to the toxins of infectious diseases. *This is especially true when diphtheria and scarlet fever have existed prior to the heart lesions.*

Symptoms.—There are two positive signs of myocarditis, arrhythmia and bradycardia. The pulse is very feeble and slow, in some cases irregular.

Sometimes the pulse rate is increased. The extremities are usually cold. In some cases there is a slight rise of temperature, 100° to 101° F. Other cases show a subnormal rectal temperature of 96° to 98° F. It is very evident that the toxins of the infectious diseases inhibit the proper action of the thermic centers. I have seen distinct vasomotor disturbances, such as unilateral flushing, affecting one cheek or the lobe of one ear. The child shows a marked general depression. There is a general devitalization noticeable; also marked apathy. The child appears listless and prefers to rest.

The Heart.—There is an irregular, very rapid heart action. The heart sounds are very indistinct. When the above symptoms occur during the course of infectious diseases, myocarditis should be suspected. Sometimes there is faintness, severe dyspnœa, and cyanosis. Not infrequently there is albumin in the urine. Dilatation and hypertrophy sometimes occur without showing distinct symptoms. The ratio of the pulse and respiration will be disarranged.

Diagnosis.—In some cases this is very difficult to make. The presence of a slow pulse and muffled heart sounds during the beginning or during the convalescence of acute infectious diseases should always lead to the suspicion of myocarditis. A slow pulse in itself should always be looked upon as ominous.

Frequently a diagnosis of myocarditis is made at the autopsy when *no positive symptoms* of the condition *were present* during life.

Prognosis.—The prognosis is certainly not good. Rarely do we find cases of myocarditis recover. This is especially true when myocarditis complicates the acute infectious diseases and the child is in a devitalized condition.

Treatment.—Excitement or exertion may cause sudden death. The child requires absolute rest. It should be put to bed in a recumbent position. High saline injections at a temperature of 115° to 120° F., using several quarts of salt water, can be tried two or three times a day. The diffusible effect of the hot saline, and consequently the tendency to eliminate toxins through the kidney, should serve as a valuable therapeutic adjunct. Life can certainly be prolonged by this measure; if it is cautiously done, so as not to exert the child's heart, the result will be apparent very soon.

Another diffusible stimulant which has served me very well is the injection of hot water to which several grains of carbonate of ammonia have been added. In some cases of severe cardiac depression I have seen good results from the injection of:—

℞ Sp. ammon. aromatic	½ drachm
Hot water	1 quart

Inject through a rectal tube into the colon, at a temperature of 110° to 115° F., once in six hours, alternating with the hot saline.

In syphilis or tuberculous conditions the treatment should be specific. When evidences of heart-failure exist, strychnine, caffein, whisky, aromatic spirits of ammonia, and nitroglycerine may be used. Spartein in small doses ($^1/_{10}$ grain every hour) may be given. The value of concentrated food is greater in this condition than in any other.

Feeding.—No drug will give as much strength to the body as food. Food should be given very frequently in small quantities. A cup of concentrated chicken broth or beef broth should be given, and two hours later the white of two or three raw eggs with sweetened coffee. Milk punch, cocoa, chocolate, or strained oatmeal gruel may be given. One of the above foods may be given every two hours. Several ounces may be given at each feeding. The outcome of the case depends upon strengthening the heart. My plan has been to give the strychnine in the food. Drugs have a more diffusible effect and seem to enter the circulation better when combined with hot food. If for any reason the stomach is sensitive and does not retain food, rectal feeding with peptonized milk may be necessary along with the hot salines previously mentioned.

CHAPTER III.

DISEASES OF THE LIVER.

THE LIVER.

THE liver in nurslings is relatively larger than in adults. To examine the liver place the child on its back with the legs slightly flexed toward the abdomen. Have the child, if possible, breathe with regularity.

Position of Liver.—Dullness can be made out from the fifth intercostal space in the mammary line to about one inch below the border of the ribs. In the axillary line it reaches from the seventh intercostal, and posteriorly a dullness is made out at the ninth intercostal space. It extends downward and can best be made out by palpating.

Birch-Hirschfeld found the average weight of the liver in the newborn infant about four and one-half ounces (127 grams).

Steffen, who has devoted considerable attention to the liver, states that the left lobe is relatively larger in the child than in the adult.

BILE.

The quantity of bile in the gall-bladder is very small. It is of a golden-yellow color, and has a neutral reaction. Its specific gravity varies from 1014 to 1053. According to Baginsky, the bile in nurslings contains organic salts—cholesterin and lecithin—fat, and various acids in less proportion than in adults. Baginsky was able to demonstrate the presence of glycocholic acid. The presence of a much less quantity of bile-acids in the infant is a beneficial physiological condition. It is a well-known fact that these acids inhibit the digestive action of the pepsin and of the pancreatic juice. Another point is that the absence of a bile-acid prevents the assimilation of large quantities of fat, as it is impossible to split up the fat into fatty acid and glycerine. Thus, fermentative processes are much more frequent in nurslings and appear with greater intensity than in the adult, because of the biliary acids. The amylacea and all substances containing flour are— owing to the above-described condition of the pancreatic juice and the bile—not fit substances to give the infant, especially during its first three months of life, *although very small quantities can be digested*, and after the fourth month are not only digested, but also absorbed.

Baginsky and Sommerfeld found large quantities of mucin in the bile.

JAUNDICE (ICTERUS).[1]

There are two forms of jaundice met with in children: first, hepatogenic; second, hæmatogenic. The most common form seen in children is a catarrhal jaundice. This is due to an extension of the catarrhal process from the stomach to the duodenum, causing catarrh of the bile ducts. (See article on "Gastroduodenitis.") In the hepatogenic form there is an obstruction to the flow of bile into the bowel. It is also called obstructive jaundice.

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[1] Icterus neonatorum is described in Part II, "Diseases of the New Born."

In the hæmatogenic form there is no obstruction to the flow of bile, but the jaundice is due to blood conditions. We find jaundice in sepsis, in malaria, and in typhoidal conditions. Mechanical obstructions, such as round worms entering the common duct, have been reported, but they are rarities.

ACUTE CONGESTION OF THE LIVER.

In literature very little light is shed on this condition. Some authors state that malaria and other poisons, particularly phosphorus, may cause this condition. I believe that acute congestion of the liver is frequently associated with acute gastric catarrh. It is also, no doubt, one of the factors on which intestinal indigestion hinges. The symptoms are mainly those of enlargement which can be made out by palpation and functional derangement such as will be considered in the next article.

ABSCESS OF THE LIVER.

While the condition is rare in children, Legrand found 102 cases reported:—

Dysenteric abscesses	31
Traumatic abscesses	19
Appendicitis abscesses	15
Typhoid abscesses	6
Tuberculous abscesses	10
Worms	13
Pyemia	2
Doubtful	6

In the chapter on the intestinal tract I have referred to worms as a causative factor. Ascarides have been found in the bile duct and the hepatic duct associated with multiple abscesses. They have also been found in the pancreatic duct.

The symptoms of fever, pain, and swelling in the region of the liver are very marked. Aspiration will aid in making the diagnosis.

The prognosis depends on the early recognition of the abscess and its immediate relief by free incision.

Treatment.—An exploratory puncture should be made early in the disease, and, as soon as pus is located, free incision should be made.

Gall-stones (Cholelithiasis).

Authentic cases of gall-stones in childhood are rare. The symptoms of biliary colic with jaundice, pain, and fever are identical with the adult type of the disease. The diagnosis can be made by the aid of an x-ray examination. No operation should be performed until a radiogram strengthens the diagnosis.

Functional Disorders of the Liver.

Functional Derangement.—This very common condition is characterized by either a total absence or a diminution in the quantity of bile secreted. This functional disorder usually causes very dry, grayish or whitish, "clay-colored" stools; also flatulence. The urine is of a very dark reddish or brownish color. Frequently the skin and conjunctival mucous membrane are pigmented. The temperature may reach 101° F.; rarely higher than 103° F. If after rest, proper diet, and hepatic stimulation the fever persists, then the possibility of abscess in the gall-bladder should be remembered.

Treatment.—Calomel, podophyllin, or elaterin in small doses. The salines and phosphate of soda in 5- or 10- grain doses can be given. Diluted hydrochloric acid or diluted nitromuriatic acid, in 1-drop doses, is a good bile stimulant. In some cases a gentle faradic current and massage may do good. A cold spray over the liver will also tone the same. Large quantities of liquids will sometimes aid in relieving functional disturbance of the liver.

Displacement of the Liver.

The liver may be displaced downward when the ribs are contracted in size. This condition is best noted in rickets. The liver may also be displaced by pleural effusions. It is found much lower in diseases wherein emaciation takes place, such as in marasmic or tubercular manifestations. In these latter conditions relaxation of the abdominal walls permits the liver to occupy a position much lower than normal.

Displacement Due to Diseases of the Adjacent Organs.—The liver is sometimes displaced by tumors arising in the right pelvic region, chiefly from swelling associated with the right kidney. In a case of mine (see chapter on "Pyelitis") the kidney pushed the liver upward and to the left. The liver returned to its normal position after the diseased kidney was removed.

Several years ago, at the Kaiser and Kaiserin Friedrich Children's Hospital of Berlin, I saw a case of a child having a supposed tumor involving the liver. While all believed that the swelling was associated with the liver, after the abdomen was opened it was found that the kidney was the seat of the trouble and that the liver was unaffected.

DESCENDED LIVER.

Rowland G. Freeman, in studying a series of 496 autopsies in children, states that he has met, not very rarely, with descended liver. These enlarged livers were found in children suffering with tuberculosis and lobar pneumonia. In his cases the liver had slipped down the right side of the abdomen.

AMYLOID DEGENERATION (WAXY LIVER).

This is an extremely rare condition. Freeman mentions but two cases in his large post-mortem experience, one case associated with tuberculous disease of the vertebræ and psoas abscess, and the other case in a child suffering from progressive anæmia. The liver and kidney were waxy in both cases.

Experimentally, amyloid degeneration has been produced by the action of the toxins of the staphylococcus pyogenes aureus.

Symptoms.—Special symptoms which could be called those specifically due to this condition cannot be described. The symptoms of the disease associated with amyloid degeneration are present on palpation. The liver is enlarged, the surface very smooth and hard, without tenderness. The spleen is also enlarged. Dropsy is usually present. The latter symptom must not necessarily be due to the kidney, but may result from pressure of the swollen liver upon the vena cava. When this disease is associated with syphilis, then symptoms of the latter disease may also be found.

The prognosis is usually bad.

Treatment.—This depends on the symptoms, which require urgent management. Syphilis, when present, requires anti-syphilitic treatment. The outcome of the case depends on restorative treatment, including nutrition.

FATTY LIVER.

Fatty degeneration of the liver is very frequently noted in children. Wollstein has found 201 cases of fatty liver in 345 consecutive autopsies. Freeman and Long studied a series of 296 autopsies at the Foundling Hospital, and found 202, or about 68 per cent., fatty livers. This disease is not as frequently found associated with wasting diseases as is claimed.

The following classification of causes or conditions with which fatty liver is associated is given by C. Oddo, in *Grancher's Maladie de l'Enfance*:—

1. Intoxications: Phosphorus, alcohol.

2. (*a*) Infections, acute: typhoid fever, measles, scarlet fever, smallpox and diphtheria, bronchopneumonia, acute general tuberculosis, and diarrhœa. (*b*) Infections, chronic: chronic tuberculosis, hereditary syphilis.

3. Maladies of nutrition: chronic gastroenteritis, rachitis.
4. Fatty liver associated with the hepatic lesions.

CIRRHOSIS OF THE LIVER (INTERSTITIAL HEPATITIS).

Two varieties of cirrhotic liver are seen in children; they are: (*a*) atrophic, (*b*) hypertrophic. This condition is caused by the same factors that produce cirrhosis in the adult. The two most important factors that produce this condition are syphilis and the excessive use of alcohol. Freeman reports two cases in neither of which alcohol was the cause of the condition, nor was any acute disease reported prior to the cirrhosis.

Symptoms.—Digestive disturbances, such as fullness in the abdomen, constipation, or diarrhœa, exist. The temperature is irregular. As a rule, the liver is not enlarged.

Diagnosis.—This is sometimes extremely difficult and can only be determined positively by a post-mortem.

Prognosis.—The prognosis depends on the cause. If due to syphilis, the prognosis is fair; if due to alcohol, then it is grave.

Treatment.—The treatment of the case depends on the symptoms presented.

FOCAL NECROSIS.

This is usually found associated with infectious diseases. It has been observed resulting from the toxin of diphtheria and measles. Freeman found focal necrosis in 4 cases out of 14 consecutive autopsies on measles cases.

Summary.—"1. Descent of the liver down the right side of the abdomen, so that the right lobe reaches below the crest of the ilium, occurs occasionally in infants, and particularly in those in whom the liver is enlarged.

"2. Fatty livers occur very frequently in the infants and children who die at the New York Foundling Hospital, or in about 41 per cent. of all cases.

"3. The condition of nutrition of the child, as expressed by the absence of fat in general and wasting of tissue, apparently has no connection with the fatty condition of the liver, the condition of nutrition in the cases having fatty livers averaging about the same as in the whole number of cases.

"4. Fatty livers occur rarely in the following chronic wasting diseases: marasmus, malnutrition, rachitis, and syphilis, unless such condition be complicated by an acute disease.

"5. With tuberculosis fatty livers occur not more often than with other conditions.

"6. Fatty livers occur most often with the acute infectious diseases and gastro-intestinal disorders.

"7. The two cases of cirrhosis of the liver examined by the writer ran a comparatively acute course. The livers on section showed a marked hyperplasia of the so-called new-formed bile ducts.

"8. Focal necrosis of the liver may be a lesion of measles."

Read article on "Congenital Obliteration of the Bile Ducts" in the section on "The New-born Baby."

Subphrenic Abscess.

This condition is very rare in children. It consists of an accumulation of pus *above the liver, but beneath the diaphragm.* Carl Beck has described this condition *in extenso* in a paper read before the New York Academy of Medicine several years ago.

Meltzer[1] reports a case occurring in a child 2 years old.

Jopson[2] has recently reported a case from the Children's Hospital, in Philadelphia.

Maydl[3] has studied a series of 179 cases. Of these cases, which were found in all ages, 10, or 5.9 per cent., were under 15 years of age. The causes in Maydl's cases were attributed to the stomach and duodenum, intestinal, pericæcal (including appendicitis), echinococcus, subcutaneous traumatism, cholangitis, perinephritis, metastatic wounds and gunshot injuries, and caries of the ribs.

Jopson, in reporting the causes of 12 of his cases, includes appendicitis, perforated gastric or duodenal ulcer, caries of the dorsal vertebræ, traumatism, and calculous cholecystitis.

In a case reported by A. Frederici[4] a girl, 8 years old, had an abscess which ruptured into the lung. The diagnosis of subphrenic abscess, secondary to liver abscess, was founded on tenderness over the liver region before the abscess ruptured, and on the absence of air in the abscess cavity.

Baginsky reported a case in a child, 2½ years old, secondary to appendicitis.

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[1] New York Medical Journal, June 24, 1893.

[2] Archives of Pediatrics, February, 1904.

[3] "Subphrenic Abscess," Wien, 1894.

[4] In Monatschr. f. Kinderheilk., July, 1903.

CHAPTER IV.

DISEASES OF THE SPLEEN AND PANCREAS.

THE SPLEEN.

ONE of the most difficult organs of a child to examine is the spleen. It can be palpated between the ninth and eleventh ribs. It is impossible to positively outline the spleen by percussion. For the purpose of examination the child should be placed flat on its back with the thighs flexed. By gentle manipulation with the tips of the fingers, we can frequently in a quiet child press under the free border of the ribs and feel the smooth border of the spleen. *Some authors maintain that when the spleen is palpable it is enlarged.* I have frequently been able to palpate the spleen in perfectly normal infants.

There are no primary diseases of the spleen, although it is frequently the seat of tubercular disease.

ENLARGEMENT OF THE SPLEEN (SPLENITIS).

An enlarged spleen is frequently seen in various systemic conditions. It is one of the characteristic symptoms of many of the acute infectious diseases. It is a prominent symptom of malarial infection and typhoid fever, and next to the condition of the blood itself is a very valuable aid in the diagnosis. In cachectic conditions and in such constitutional disorders affecting the blood, as, for example, in rickets, a very large spleen can frequently be palpated. An enlargement of the spleen reaching into the groin was seen by me in a case of rickets. The spleen, therefore, is a very valuable aid to diagnosis in many conditions. For a description of the method of examination see article on the "Spleen in the New-born Baby."

WANDERING SPLEEN (MOVABLE SPLEEN, LIEN MOBILIS).

When there is an elongation of the gastro-lienal ligament, the spleen can be readily moved.

Causes.- Severe paroxysms of coughing, such as whooping-cough or traumatism, can cause this condition.

Symptoms.—In young children there are no special guides. Older children complain of pain on the left side and vague abdominal pains.

Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is made by palpating the wandering spleen.

Treatment.—An abdominal bandage to support the abdomen will frequently aid in replacing the spleen. Rarely will surgical treatment be demanded.

THE PANCREAS.

The pancreas is situated behind the stomach. It is about the height of the first lumbar vertebra. The function of the pancreas is known as the *amylolytic function,* namely, starch digestion, in reality the conversion of starch into sugar.

DISEASES OF THE PANCREAS.

Syphilitic tissue changes are frequently seen in the pancreas. Malignant tumors are occasionally reported in the literature. When such lesions exist they tax the diagnostic skill of the specialist. The diagnosis is rarely made *intra vitam.*

CHAPTER V.

DISEASES OF THE PERITONEUM.

ACUTE PERITONITIS.

THIS is a very rare condition in childhood. It is most frequently seen in practice in the new-born, where the inflammation is the result of a pyogenic infection through the umbilical vessels. This has been described in the section on the "New-born Baby."

Etiology.—This inflammation is frequently the result of traumatism. It may follow the operation for appendicitis or other operation on the abdomen. Cases have been reported where an infection such as gonorrhœa or vulvovaginitis has extended into the uterus or into the peritoneum. This condition may frequently accompany Pott's disease or perinephritis, and may also follow deep-seated burns in which cellulitis or erysipelatous inflammation exists.

I have seen peritonitis as a complication of scarlet fever in hospital and private practice.

Bacteriology.—The streptococcus is most frequently found to be the cause of peritonitis in the new-born. Sometimes the pneumococcus and the bacterium coli commune are found.

Pathology.—*Serous Form:* There is a large outpouring of serum which is clear, and there is a small amount of lymph associated with it. When recovery takes place the serum is absorbed. Adhesions usually follow.

Fibrinous Form.—The peritoneum is intensely congested, the blood-vessels injected, and a large amount of lymph is thrown out with very little serum. The pathological process corresponds to that condition seen in fibrinous pleurisy. Firm adhesions resulting in the formation of connective-tissue bands usually remain.

Purulent Form.—A large amount of lymph and pus are present with the usual evidences of inflammation. The abscess is rarely localized or isolated from the rest of the peritoneum by a thick wall of fibrin. Spontaneous evacuation of pus through the vagina, rectum, bladder, or umbilicus has been reported. Such cases may recover. As a rule, purulent peritonitis is fatal.

Symptoms.—The symptoms of fever, vomiting with pain, and uniform distention of the abdomen are usually present. There is also tympanites, and when liquid is present fluctuation can be felt. The child is usually found flat on its back with the legs flexed. Diarrhœa exists in some cases, constipation in others. The child appears very sick and suffers continuous pain. The following case occurred in my practice:—

Jessie M., 2 years old, had typical symptoms of influenza. There were coryza, sneezing, and a temperature of 104° F. At this time there had been a house epidemic, and all members of the family were suffering with influenza. The child had anorexia and vomiting, and cried continuously as if in pain. The abdomen was distended, and constipation reported. A soap-water enema was ordered, and, although a good result followed, the crying continued. The abdomen was tympanitic on percussion and the uniform distention continued. An ice-bag was ordered, but gave no relief. Local applications of warm *antiphlogistine poultices* seemed to afford relief. Chamomile injections at a temperature of 115° F. were ordered given into the colon. When the same passed off another injection of 8 ounces of warm olive-oil not only relieved the child, but produced sleep. These injections were repeated three times a day. Codeine with calcined magnesia was ordered to relieve pain and for the antifermentative effect.

Feeding.—Whey was given every four hours and several teaspoonfuls of Mulford's predigested beef with whisky every two hours. The disease lasted about two weeks. The child recovered.

Prognosis.—This disease is frequently fatal, especially the purulent variety. The most favorable cases are those in which there is a sero-fibrinous exudation. The outcome depends on the vitality at the time of illness.

Treatment.—Warm applications have served me best, although some authors, especially the Germans, prefer ice. Hot, moist flannels to which 15 to 30 drops of turpentine have been added will usually relieve tympanites. Codeine should be given until the child is comfortable, $^1/_{10}$ to $^1/_5$ grain, every two hours or oftener. My results have been best when milk was omitted. Soup or broth may be given. Whey is valuable in this condition; also white of raw egg well beaten with sweetened water. The treatment described in the clinical case above cited is my usual method adopted. The high colon flushings are cleansing and soothing. When great prostration exists, instead of using chamomile tea and warm olive-oil, normal saline solution has a more toning effect. Special symptoms, such as collapse, require strychnine, nitro-glycerine, or caffeine sodium benzoate. Also liberal stimulation with champagne or whisky. Oxygen if cyanosis exists.

Operative Treatment.—If symptoms of appendicitis exist, then an operation may do good. If a sudden collapse is noted perforation should be suspected and the surgeon consulted at once.

CHRONIC PERITONITIS (NON-TUBERCULOUS).

Many authors doubt the existence of a non-tuberculous peritonitis. Henoch believes that we have a distinct variety of chronic peritonitis which bears no relation to tuberculosis.

Symptoms.—In a distended abdomen associated with ascites the liquid can be made out by palpation. There may be diarrhœa or there may be constipation. Dyspeptic symptoms are always present, and there is a slight rise of temperature. There are no other symptoms of tuberculosis, and as a rule no other complications present. Anæmia is usually very marked.

A child 8 years old was seen by me during my service in the German Poliklinik. He was a bottle-fed and rachitic boy. He had *suffered with a very severe acute milk infection*, resulting in *cholera infantum* and *peritonitis*. The child developed symptoms of athrepsia infantum. Several years later the child had a swollen. tympanitic abdomen and a wave of fluid could be made out by careful palpation. I aspirated about 1 pint of a yellow serous fluid. The same was examined and no tubercle bacilli or other bacteria were found. The condition improved. The case was seen by me twice a month, and it was necessary to tap the abdomen each time to relieve distention. The child was under observation about six years. During this time large doses of iodide of sodium, codliver-oil, and iron were ordered. A change to the country seemed to do the most good. The child is well to-day.

TUBERCULOUS PERITONITIS.

The peritoneum frequently participates in a general tuberculous condition. It may, however, be an entirely independent disease; that is, it may occur as the primary lesion of tuberculosis. Biedert[1] collected a series of 883 autopsies on tuberculous children of various ages. He found the peritoneum affected in 18 per cent. The disease may be either acute or chronic.

Pathology.—In tubercular peritonitis the lesions are those of a general miliary tuberculosis. There are usually not very many tubercles scattered through the peritoneum. When the ascites is present then the tubercles are far more abundant. The omentum and mesentery participate in the tuberculous process. The liquid present may be brownish-colored serum containing blood; it may be serous or yellowish and contain pus.

The fibrous form usually shows adhesions between the loops of intestine or between the intestine and the abdominal wall. In the ulcerative form there is usually a fibrinous exudation. This form usually follows the miliary or fibrous variety.

Symptoms.—Well-marked evidences of peritonitis can usually be made out when ascites and tympanites are present. When fever is associated with it in addition to evidence of cough or other physical signs in the lungs, then the diagnosis is not doubtful. Sometimes the tubercular or non-tubercular forms of chronic peritonitis will render the diagnosis very difficult.

Differential Points.—Cirrhosis of the liver may cause an ascites. It is rare in very young children. If the history of syphilis is given the same may be suspected. In some cases a diagnosis can only be made when an exploratory puncture is made and the fluid examined. Even then the diagnosis may be difficult. The only method then left is to make a microscopical examination of the fibrous nodules or rarely by inoculation experiments. The following cases represent tubercular peritonitis as occurring in my private practice:—

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[1] Jahrbuch für Kinderheilkunde, xxi, p. 178.

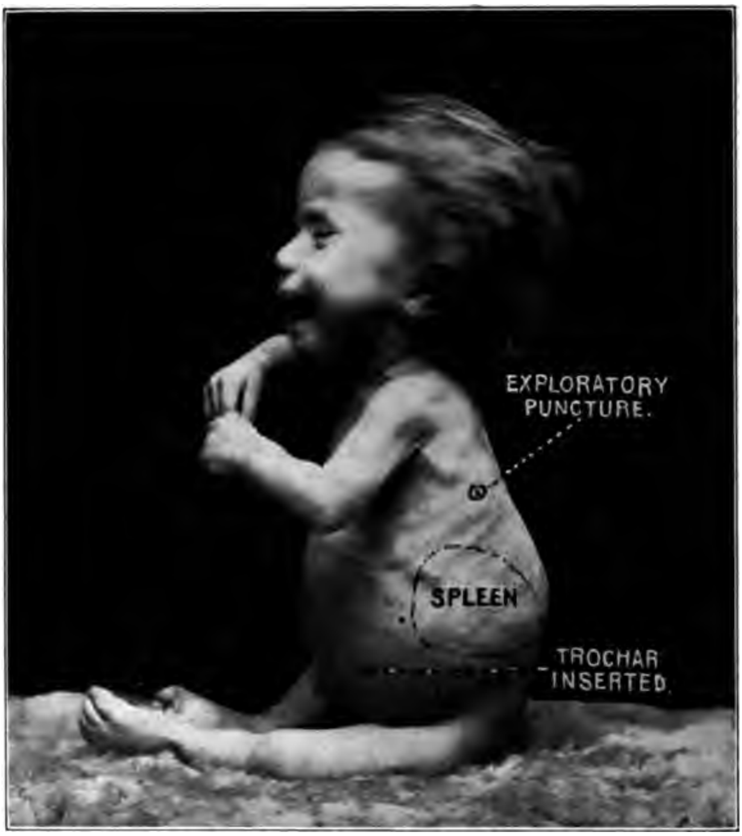

Fig. 111.—Case of Tubercular Peritonitis Complicated by Tubercular **Empyema.** Enlarged Spleen. Rachitic Bottle-fed Infant. (Original.)

M. B., female, 2 years old, was brought to me with a history of cough, distended abdomen, and severe constipation alternating with diarrhœa. The appetite was poor, and the child had lost considerable in weight and has not been well since an attack of measles which occurred about one year ago. Evidences of tuberculosis were made out. The stool contained mucus. Tubercle bacilli were frequently found in the mucous discharges. A cavity could be made out at the left apex. The child suffered with recurring pleurisy. The chest contained a large quantity of liquid effusion for over four months. Nine ounces of a thin, greenish fluid was aspirated from the left side of the thorax. Examination showed tubercle bacilli and also streptococci. The abdomen was enormously distended, and a wave or distinct thrill of liquid could be felt by transmitted palpation. Extreme dyspnœa was caused by the pressure of this liquid on the diaphragm. By aspiration I removed 1000 cubic centimeters of a yellowish serous liquid from the abdominal cavity. Temporary relief was afforded, although the abdomen refilled very rapidly. It was necessary to tap the same once every six weeks. The child finally died of exhaustion. (See Fig. 118.)

A second case occurred in a little girl, Katie B., about 9 years old, who was under the treatment of Dr. John H. Wurthman. The same symptoms as I have described in the previous case were found, general tuberculosis with especial pulmonary manifestations and symptoms of peritonitis. In this case I aspirated over three pints of liquid from the abdominal cavity. The child gradually sank and died several months later.

Prognosis.—When ascites is present the prognosis is not good, especially if operative measures are undertaken. As a rule cases end fatally.

Treatment.—For a number of years laparotomy was advised as the best method of treating tubercular peritonitis. Many successful cases were reported. It was believed that after the abdomen was opened, drained, and sunlight admitted this latter agent aided the healing process. In recent years many pediatricians hold the opposite view.

Light Treatment.—Not very long ago I saw a case of tubercular peritonitis (non-operative) which was progressing very nicely. It was under the treatment of direct sun rays, besides receiving an electric light bath for ten minutes each day. The influence of light has in recent years demonstrated its value, especially in tubercular manifestations.

A very interesting monograph on this subject has been published by Aldibert, of Paris, 1892. Baginsky extols the value of operative procedures in tubercular peritonitis. The reader is referred to modern works on surgery for exhaustive data on this subject.

The general treatment consists in restoratives, building up the body by nutrition, and by tonics when possible.

Serum Treatment.—The use of streptolytic serum in doses of 10 to 30 cubic centimeters is well worth trying. Antistreptococcus serum (10 to 50 cubic centimeters) can be injected in daily doses of 10 cubic centimeters, or the dose may be given every two or three days.

ASCITES.

This is an accumulation of clear serum in the peritoneal cavity. When it is very severe there is, in addition to the uniform distention of the abdomen, a superficial enlargement of the veins. This is especially noted around the veins of the umbilicus.

Causes.—Pressure upon the vena cava, or chronic heart or lung trouble, such as pleurisy, may give rise to ascites. In extreme leukæmia, anæmia, or kidney disease ascites may be present.

Diagnosis.—The fluid can best be made out by tapping the abdomen and noting the transmission of the wave. On tapping the abdomen with one hand and pressing the other firmly against the opposite side, a wave of fluctuation can be made out.

The *symptoms, prognosis,* and *treatment* will be considered in the article on "Ascites Due to Peritonitis."

Ascites Due to Peritonitis.

In the majority of cases ascites is caused by tubercular peritonitis. This condition resembles in its clinical and pathological aspects subacute or chronic pleurisy with effusion, or subacute pericarditis.

Etiology.—No definite cause and no specific agent has yet been determined. Most of the cases are associated with or follow rheumatism, measles, or exposure to cold, and in rare instances injury to the affected parts. It is also seen associated with diseases of the kidney, liver, and intestines.

Pathology.—The pathological lesions are very few. The effusion is usually of a greenish color. In addition to the serum there is fibrin, and in some instances adhesions. In some cases all the serous membranes of the body seem to participate and show evidences of inflammatory condition.

Symptoms.—The early symptoms of ascites consist of general malaise. A child will have a poor appetite, complain of headache, and sometimes constipation. In other cases diarrhœa may exist. Pain is not present as a rule. The abdominal distention comes on gradually and progresses. The distention is usually the first symptom noted by the mother. The fluid can best be made out by tapping the abdomen as described in the foregoing article on "Ascites." Fever is usually absent, although there may be an evening temperature of 101° F.

Prognosis.—The prognosis is fair as a rule. I have seen many cases of ascites recover, leaving no trace of the former trouble behind. A cautious prognosis is advised if a tuberculous process is suspected.

Treatment.—*General Treatment:* Such children must be put to bed. The diet should consist of concentrated liquid food. No solid meats should be permitted. Milk, if not well borne, should be peptonized or fermented. Buttermilk may be recommended. Fresh air and sponge bathing should be remembered as important hygienic factors.

The body should be well protected to avoid chilling the surface.

Treatment of the Effusion.—Small doses of calomel or podophyllin may be given until liquid stools are produced. Diuretics such as cream of tartar, lemonade, or diuretin, in 5-grain doses, will stimulate the action of the kidneys and thus lessen indirectly the serous effusion in the abdomen.

Iodide of sodium in 3- to 10- grain doses should be given three times a day to promote absorption. It may be combined with iron in the following manner:—

℞ Ferri et kali tartaric	1 drachm
Sodium iodide	1 drachm
Elix. of lactopeptin, q. s. ad	2 ounces

Sig.: One teaspoonful three times a day.

Tapping the Abdomen.—Aspirating the liquid by means of a trocar and cannula is a valuable means of emptying the liquid. It is especially indicated if symptoms of dyspnœa due to pressure on the diaphragm are noted.

If relapse occurs and the liquid continues to accumulate after several aspirations, then surgical treatment will be necessary. The occasional good results seen in tubercular peritonitis after a laparotomy should be remembered.

CHAPTER VI.

DISEASES OF THE GENITAL ORGANS.

HERNIA.[1]

HERNIA is occasionally seen in the new-born baby. It is overlooked in a good many cases until the size of the tumor indicates that something is abnormal, as there are no special symptoms (see article on "Hygiene of the Infant" in the "New-born Infant").

"In congenital hernia proper, anatomical conditions favorable to visceral escape always tend to permanent spontaneous cure in infancy and early childhood. At birth the spermatic vessels are deeply covered by a thick layer of adipose tissue. The dartos and cremaster are then highly developed, giving the scrotum dimensions quite out of proportion in size to what they are in adult life. Serous cysts of the tunica spermatica and of the tunica vaginalis being very common, this condition also with the scrotum fullness may simulate hernia so closely that it is only by a most painstaking examination we are enabled to exclude them. On the other hand, a small fringe of omentum may come down with the cord and be completely overlooked."

Thomas H. Manley, in his monograph on "Hernia and its Treatment," says: "The prevalent custom of applying a band or binder around the abdomen should be condemned. It conserves no useful purpose; the only excuse for it at all is that it retains the envelopes of the funis in position. If this firm, inelastic compression does not in many cases directly cause hernia in those predisposed to it, I am confident it often very seriously interferes with spontaneous cure, by the increasing pressure which it produces against the abdominal walls. In the herniated infant this, then, should be cast aside, the dressing for the navel string being held in position by adhesive straps or tapes passed around the body. After the desiccated remnant of the cord has dropped off nothing whatever in the way of a girth should be worn around the abdomen, but the garments, when the erect attitude is taken, should be all carried from the shoulders, thereby the feeblest possible action being given to the diaphragm and the organs of digestion. Occasionally we see one side of the scrotum occupied by a hernia before the testicle has descended. Congenital hernia is very rare in females. In the female the umbilical hernia is more common."

Causes.—A calculus in any portion of the urethra or a phimosis or atresia of the urethral canal may cause powerful contractions of the ab-

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[1] For Umbilical Hernia see chapter on "Diseases of the Intestines."

dominal muscles, resulting in a hernia. Coughing, especially whooping-cough, frequently produces hernia. Constant straining efforts during constipation or when diarrhœa persists frequently end in hernia.

Symptoms.—In male infants a tumor that is soft and round will be found in the scrotum. The testicle, although at times difficult to feel, is usually felt above or behind the swelling. This swelling consists of a loop of intestine; rarely the peritoneum descends with it. By placing the child on its back the swelling can easily be pushed into the abdomen through the abdominal ring. There is always a gurgling sound, which is characteristic of hernia.

Diagnosis.—Hernia is frequently mistaken for hydrocele. Both hydrocele and hernia are sometimes found in the same case. The following differential points are well worth noting:—

Table No. 41.

Hydrocele.	*Hernia.*
1. Translucent by transmitted light.	1. Is opaque.
2. Always dull on percussion.	2. Always resonant.
3. When reduction is possible the fluid passes back slowly and noiselessly.	3. The hernia passes back quickly and gives the characteristic gurgling sound.
4. No impulse on coughing.	4. An impulse can be felt when patient coughs.
5. The ring is empty.	5. The ring is filled with the neck of the tumor.

Prognosis.—This is usually good. Children rarely have strangulation as we find it in adults. Most of the cases of hernia seen by me in children recovered with the aid of a properly fitting truss. At times nothing but an operation will cure the case.

Treatment.—The diet should be regulated. If any apparent cause exists, such as prolonged diarrhœas with tenesmus, constipation, or cough, the same should be treated. If a whooping-cough exists the proper treatment must be instituted before mechanical appliance is ordered. This consists chiefly in relieving the hernia with a truss. My own experience has been rather good by having a rubber sponge with a rough surface made to include the hernia. This should be held in place by the usual strap going around the body. The leather covered or the celluloid front pads are continually slipping; hence, not so well adapted for children. The hygiene should be well considered in a child. A truss on a diapered infant is a nuisance; it cannot be kept clean; hence, every nurse or mother should be instructed regarding the sensitive skin and the danger of causing irritation from moisture. Every mother should be taught to watch the infant when it cries or strains to prevent the truss from slipping.

Surgical Treatment.—With modern aseptic methods there is little or no risk in an operation. The success of the Bassini operation is so uniform that I have seen dozens of children operated with no fatalities. For the details of this surgical method I would refer the reader to textbooks on surgery.

HYDROCELE.

"The testicle in its descent is surrounded by a serous membrane described by some authors as a serous pouch. When this pouch fills with serum it is called a hydrocele. Normally a few drops of serum are found in the tunica vaginalis propria. Larger accumulations are met with in more than 10 per cent. of male infants, mostly on the right side, seldom on both. In the majority of cases there is no longer a communication with the abdominal cavity. When it remains a hernia may complicate the hydrocele and the diagnosis be more difficult, because the fluid is apt to return occasionally into the abdomen. Spontaneous absorption is not very rare, but suppuration is uncommon."

Treatment.—Under aseptic precautions a sterilized needle or trocar should be introduced. By this means the serum can be removed. This simple method has frequently resulted in a cure. When the hydrocele fills up again the injection of a few drops of tincture of iodine or Lugol's solution, or pure carbolic acid after the serum has been withdrawn, will usually prove successful. Operations are rarely required, although they are indicated if this milder form of treatment proves unsuccessful.

ADHERENT PREPUCE.

Congenital agglutination of the prepuce and the glans penis is occasionally reported. The majority of cases seen are *acquired* conditions. Smegma frequently collects under the foreskin when the same is not properly cleaned.

Treatment.—With a blunt probe an adherent prepuce can be loosened from the glans penis. The smegma should be removed and the parts lubricated with albolene or olive-oil. The mother or nurse should be instructed to oil these parts and thoroughly separate the prepuce so that new adhesions do not form. If this trouble recurs then circumcision is indicated.

PHIMOSIS (CIRCUMCISION).

Phimosis is due to a narrowing or contraction of the prepuce so that the foreskin is prevented from being drawn back over the glans penis. A tight prepuce or an elongated prepuce is a constant source of irritation. Bed wetting is a very frequent symptom of this condition. There is an itching and an irritation which frequently lead to bad habits. The sensitive condition sometimes causes priapism, and this may lead to masturbation. Night terrors and insomnia are frequently caused by this condition. Phimosis is sometimes an exciting cause of chorea and various nervous diseases.

Symptoms.—Such children invariably suffer with anæmia. They are peevish and restless and constantly irritable. The main symptoms are a series of irritations caused by the tight foreskin as outlined above. In exceptional instances strong, healthy children may not show any symptoms of this condition.

The following case was seen by me in private practice:—

A boy, 4 years old, has always been in apparently good health. He was breast-fed, well-nourished, and showed no evidence of rickets. His mother complained to me that the child had a "weak bladder," that he could not hold his urine, especially at night. He was restless and peevish, and tossed about in his sleep. On examination I found a phimosis existed. The prepuce did not slip over the glans, and the child cried as though in pain whenever the genitals were touched. I advised stretching the foreskin, and this was done every few days, with some degree of success, for the period of about three months. The child improved. When seen again about one year later the symptoms of nervousness, and restlessness reappeared. I then advised circumcision. With the assistance of Dr. John H. Wurthman, who administered chloroform, the prepuce was removed, the parts were dusted with europhen, and the wound healed *per priman.* The child improved gradually and is a good healthy child to-day.

Treatment.—The treatment outlined in the case above described is the only one that should be used: First, stretching the prepuce, and, secondly, if this does not afford relief, circumcision.

Operation.—A simple method is to make an incision or cut the dorsum of the prepuce with a scissors. After this incision is made we invariably have another skin to divide, which is the mucous membrane. Unless this is also incised we cannot expect relief from the constriction. As a rule small, cheese-like particles, called smegma, will be found, which must be cleaned away. Then follows the surgical treatment, such as checking hæmorrhage, if the same is profuse. In rare cases one or more stitches may be necessary to control the bleeding. I invariably use a piece of sterile gauze saturated with Monsel's solution immediately after the operation, then dust the parts with europhen. Great care should be used to avoid infection from a case of diphtheria or erysipelas. It is safer to have a surgeon supervise or perform the operation than to run the risk of infection.

PARAPHIMOSIS.

This is a condition caused by the swelling of the glans or by an abnormally small preputial orifice.

Treatment.—Have the thumb and finger of one hand pressing on the glans; with the other hand an attempt should be made to draw the prepuce back in position. In some cases immersing the parts in very warm water for several minutes has served me very well. If the parts are very tender a spray of ethyl chloride can be used with advantage before the attempted reduction. When the parts are very œdematous then puncturing the surface to relieve the serum will sometimes yield good results. At times surgical relief may be demanded.

HYPOSPADIAS.

The urethra sometimes opens on the under side of the penis. This is always a congenital condition.

A case of this kind was seen be me in consultation with Dr. Julius Brandeis, of New York City. When I saw this infant it was three days old and apparently suffering pain. The bladder was distended, and the infant had not urinated, according to the history given, since it was born. An examination showed a hypospadias. The urethral orifice in the glans penis was absent. With the aid of diuretics and a warm hip bath the infant urinated. I have seen this child many times since. He is now able to walk and talk and suffers no inconvenience.

The treatment is radical—by means of plastic surgery.

EPISPADIAS.

In this condition the opening of the urethra is on the superior surface of the penis. It is less frequently met with than hypospadias.

The treatment is distinctly surgical and requires a plastic operation.

CRYPTORCHIDISM (UNDESCENDED TESTICLE).

The testes usually descend into the scrotum during the ninth month of pregnancy. In some children the testicles may remain in the inguinal canal or even in the abdomen.

Ralph C. was referred to me by Dr. W. Freudenthal. He was a well-nourished, healthy child. Was breast-fed and in apparent good health until two years ago. He suffered with cough, was a mouth breather, and snored at night, for the relief of which Dr. Freudenthal removed his adenoids. The child was brought to me for the relief of an irritable and restless condition. His mother stated that he scratched his nose and appeared to have a pruritus of the anus. The diagnosis of ascarides lumbricoides was made. While examining the child I found one testicle could be palpated in the scrotum and the other in the inguinal canal. By pressure on the abdomen it would descend. There were no symptoms directly attributable to this condition.

Treatment.—If no irritation is caused then let it alone. If a false passage has been made which gives rise to pain, then the question of removal of the testicle may come up. The case then is distinctly surgical.

ORCHITIS.

An inflammation of the testicle is a rare condition in infancy. Cases have been reported where injury caused orchitis. In the article on "Mumps" orchitis is mentioned as a complication. The treatment consists in rest and ice-cold applications of lead and opium. Laxatives are indicated to open the bowels and thus help relieve the inflammation.

URETHRITIS: VULVO-VAGINITIS.

Vulvo-vaginitis is a catarrhal infectious disease involving the female genital tract. It is divided into:—

(*a*) Simple or Catarrhal; (*b*) Gonorrhœal.

SIMPLE VAGINITIS.

The normal urethra of both male and female children, also the vagina, frequently has a simple catarrh. The symptoms noticed are those of swelling, inflammation and a catarrhal secretion.

Etiology and Bacteriology.—Normally the vagina contains a white diplococcus which is not decolorized by Gram.

In simple catarrhal vulvo-vaginitis we have a white diplococcus which also is not decolorized by Gram.

In gonorrhœal vulvo-vaginitis we have a white diplococcus which does not decolorize by Gram, and in addition thereto a yellow diplococcus called D. Flavus (Bumm).

These germs are usually found in conjunction with other micro-organisms or with streptococci. They easily stain with a watery solution of eosin and counterstain with an alkaline aqueous methylene blue solution.

The microscopical examination shows leucocytes, epithelium, and various micro-organisms; never gonococci.

Symptoms.—The parts are usually sensitive to pressure.

Children who are old enough complain of pain on urination, and also urinate very frequently. In very young children it is impossible, in fact, unnecessary, to make a vaginal or uterine examination.

This disease may last for months, especially so if the body is in a subnormal condition.

This simple catarrh affecting the vulvo-vagina is highly contagious, hence each case should be strictly isolated.

Children so afflicted should sleep alone.

GONORRHŒAL VAGINITIS.

Gonorrhœal vulvo-vaginitis is frequently met with in practice. As a rule it occurs among poorer classes where families are crowded and unsanitary. Frequently the infection is transmitted from the adult to the child by sleeping in an infected bed. Cases are on record where a mother suffering with gonorrhœal vulvo-vaginitis has infected her child while sleeping with it.

Etiology.—The slightest abrasion of the skin will permit the entrance of the gonococcus. Cases have been reported in which a healthy person was infected by taking a bath in the same tub in which a person affected with gonorrhœa had bathed the day previous. It is a well-known fact that the gonococcus will live twenty-four hours, hence these germs will persist in the tub and can transmit infection. For this reason a separate tub should be procured while gonorrhœal disease exists.

Bacteriology.—Gonorrhœal vaginitis is caused by the presence of the gonococcus. It is necessary, however, to subject the gonococcus described by Neisser to the Gram method of staining. The diplococcus found in the normal urethra can easily be differentiated by subjecting the same to the Gram stain. Normally the gonococcus has never been found in the vulvo-vaginal tract or in the normal urethra. The gonococcus can easily be stained with a 2 per cent. alcoholic methylene blue solution.

Mode of Infection.—Direct transmission of infected matter from adults to children has been known to occur. Infected clothing, especially bed linen, has transmitted this disease.

In rare instances the infection has taken place directly during the sexual act. There is a popular superstition that when an adult male has gonorrhœa he will be cured by raping a healthy child. An instance of this kind has occurred in my practice.

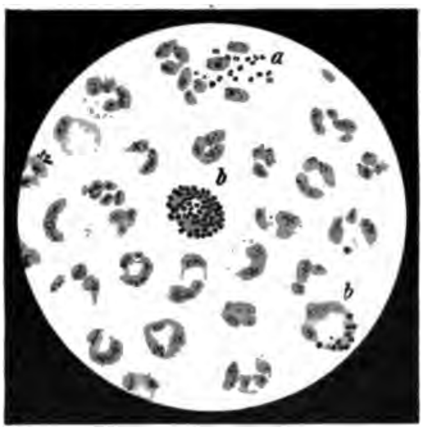

Fig. 112.—Gonococcus. (Gonorrhœal Pus.) Stained one-half minute with methylene-blue. *a*, Free in groups. *b*, Enclosed in pus cells. Leitz ocular I. Oil imersion $^1/_{12}$. (Lenhartz-Brooks.)

A little girl, 6 years old, apparently healthy, was infected by an adult suffering with gonorrhœa. She suffered continuously for over four months until brought to me, when her vulva, vagina, and urethra were one mass of inflammation. There was a greenish-yellow discharge. The bacteriological examination showed diplococci in the leucocytes.

The child was put to bed and a sterilized pad applied over the genitals. This pad was changed every four hours. A sitz bath of 1 to 2000 warm bichloride was ordered morning and evening, lasting twenty minutes. A vaginal injection of 10 per cent. argyrol solution was given immediately after each bath. Internally iron was given. The discharge continued eleven days and everything seemed well. A reinfection evidently took place four days after having stopped the active treatment, as the discharge appeared with renewed vigor. The child was again carefully treated with astringents. The discharge persisted for three months, when it was finally cured.

Complications.—*The Eye:* The danger of transmitting gonorrhœal infection by the hands from the genitals to the eyes must always be remembered. That this form of infection is not without danger is well known. At the Riverside Hospital in the scarlet fever wards, during the summer of 1902, I saw a child that was totally blind, the result of a gonorrhœal infection.

The Joints.—We occasionally meet with symptoms of inflammation involving one large joint; this is called monarthritis. An inflammation of this kind usually means gonorrhœal infection.

The Heart.—When the gonococcus enters the circulation it frequently attacks the valves of the heart. Valvular lesions are similar to joint lesions; hence we must not be surprised to see cases reported in which a gonorrhœa started at the genital tract, entered the circulation, and involved the heart. A case of this kind was reported by Leyden, of Berlin.

Pyelitis caused by an extension of this infection from the urethra may end fatally. An infection may spread from the vagina into the uterus and set up a salpingitis and end fatally. On the other hand, this disease, if neglected, may assume a chronic tendency and cause sterility, so that a guarded prognosis should be given in every case until the infection is modified and the outlook is good. (Read article on "Pyelitis.")

VICARIOUS MENSTRUATION.

Some children have a periodical nosebleed, recurring every three or four weeks. In some cases there is a considerable flow of blood, lasting between two and five days. In making the diagnosis it is important to exclude all diseases due to local causes, such as polypus or hæmophilia. In one case seen by me (see chapter on "Syphilis") fatal hæmorrhage resulted in a case of congenital syphilis.

The cause is unknown.

Treatment.—The body should be strengthened and iron given internally. A change of air to the seashore or mountains will strengthen the body and frequently relieve this condition.

MENSTRUATION PRÆCOX.

We occasionally see girls from 6 to 10 years of age with regular menstruation. Literature records numerous cases of children from 2 to 5 years of age with regularly recurring menstruation. Such menstruation lasts several days or in some instances several hours. As a rule, such children are delicate, tuberculous, or syphilitic.

Symptoms.—There is usually pain in the abdomen similar to colic, restlessness, and a series of nervous symptoms. Such children are hard to please.

Diagnosis.—It is necessary to exclude local causes, such as papillomatous or polypoid excrescences. I have previously referred to hæmophilia and to syphilis as a possible cause. Local causes, such as masturbation or traumatism, must be excluded. As a sequela to acute infectious diseases, we frequently have vaginal catarrh. This discharge may sometimes be mixed with blood. The diagnosis depends on the regularity of the periods, recurring every three or four weeks.

Treatment.—Warm, demulcent drinks and the avoidance of cooling liquids. The child should be kept in bed and warmly dressed.

If the bleeding is very profuse, then 5 to 10 drops of fluid extract of ergot (Squibb's), or hydrastinin hydrochlorate, $^1/_{10}$ to $^1/_{20}$ grain, three times a day, may be given. An ice-bag over the abdomen will frequently relieve severe pain and check profuse bleeding.

CHAPTER VII.

DISEASES OF THE KIDNEY AND BLADDER.

THE KIDNEY.[1]

THE kidneys of an infant are proportionately larger than in adult life. They are also situated lower than in the adult. The large size of the liver in infancy is the reason for the difference in position of the right and left kidney. The right kidney is situated lower than the left. The suprarenal capsules are much larger than in the adult. After the second year the kidneys assume the position usually occupied by the adult kidneys.

ACUTE NEPHRITIS (ACUTE GLOMERULO-NEPHRITIS; ACUTE BRIGHT'S DISEASE).

Primary nephritis is by no means a rare condition in children. In the majority of text-books nephritis is described as the complication of infectious diseases. It is true that it is most often seen following the acute infectious diseases. In primary nephritis the source of infection is sometimes hard to trace. Pathogenic bacteria can reach the kidneys through the circulation and thus set up nephritis.

Etiology.—The influence of exposure, "taking cold," must be looked upon as an associated factor in the causation of this disease.

Comby[2] explains this as follows:—

In the absence of a specific process, such as scarlatina, diphtheria, etc., we are led, upon the occurrence of acute simple nephritis, to suspect the influence of cold. The action of cold, however, is not always direct. In nephritis, as in pneumonia, cold alone does not cause the disease. It enfeebles the organism, increases its receptivity, augments the virulence of microbes, and opens the gates by which they enter. Children carry within themselves, in the mouth, pharynx, and nasal passages, various microbes, which only await an opportunity of wakening into activity. This opportunity is afforded them by the impression of cold.

The sore throat which so often precedes nephritis constitutes a first step toward the invasion by pathogenic microbes. The epithelial barrier is broken down, the micro-organisms reach the lymphatic glands, where they are often arrested or may continue their progress, passing into the circulation, and finally excite a distant inflammation which may be, according to circumstances, a pneumonia, an endocarditis, or nephritis, etc.

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[1] The urine, its physiological and pathological condition, is described in detail in the chapter on "Urine," Part XII.

[2] "Néphrite Aigue Simple des Enfants," par le Dr. J. Comby, La Médecine Moderne, December 1, 1897.

In some cases an apparently most trival angina becomes complicated with swollen cervical glands, and, subsequently, with acute nephritis, etc. Cases have been described as glandular fever, or, in other words, acute adenitis, symptomatic of pharyngeal infection, in which nephritis has developed, superadded to the original disease, which it finally survives. These complications are not fortuitous, but are linked together in strict sequence.

Pathology.—Inflammation of the kidney in a large majority of cases commences as a glomerulo-nephritis, the delicate walls of the capillaries, and their equally delicate epithelial investment being the earliest to suffer; and instead of the non-albuminous urine, one laden with albumin escapes. If the inflammation still progresses, corpuscles, especially the red, make their way out and produce smoky or bloody urine, the naturally high pressure in the glomerulus no doubt greatly facilitating the diapedesis. The casts which may now appear consist for the most part of fibrin, of red and white corpuscles, and of renal *débris,* moulded in the tubes.

The glomerular disturbance is followed by that of the rest of the vascular net-work and of the gland cells. The latter become swollen and "clouded," and are readily detached. The swollen cells may occlude the lumen of the ducts and press upon the vascular tissue without. Or the capillaries are congested and exudation swells the intertubular tissue. In any case the tissue is enlarged and softened. Sometimes during life the signs of nephritis are well marked, but after death the anatomical lesion appears very slight; in these cases comparison with a normal kidney, both to the naked eye and under the microscope, is invaluable, as then some change can usually be detected.

The kidney of typhoid and diphtheria serve as examples, although there are numerous acute specific diseases which are accompanied by nephritis and albuminuria. The glomeruli are enlarged, owing to swelling of the interstitial substance and to engorgement of the capillaries and often swelling of the endothelial cells; there is in addition an increase in the number of nuclei in the glomeruli. Bowman's capsules may be slightly distended, their endothelium swollen or proliferating, and the spaces occupied by fibrin or white or red corpuscles. There may be an increase in corpuscles around the roots of the glomeruli. The tubules may be dilated, the epithelium swollen and granular, or there may be some proliferation. Casts are numerous, though usually hyaline; they may consist of blood. Small hæmorrhages are frequent, especially in diphtheritic kidneys.

Acute nephritis in the new-born has been described by Jacobi.[1]

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[1] New York Medical Journal, January, 1896.

Symptoms.—Gastric disturbances, such as vomiting, are very frequently noted. As a rule premonitory symptoms are absent. Nephritis frequently begins with fever, loss of appetite, headache, and general malaise. Swelling of the face is sometimes the first sign of trouble.

The urine is always scanty and sometimes contains red blood-corpuscles, leucocytes, and casts. The urine shows the evidence of acute renal congestion and is *always albuminous.* In grave cases there are frequent efforts to pass urine, and these attempts are attended with pain. With great difficulty the child expels a few drops of dark colored urine. According to the severity of the case these symptoms subside after a period varying from ten to thirty days. Irregularity of the pulse is frequently noted, and should always be looked upon as an evidence of toxæmia. It is a grave symptom.

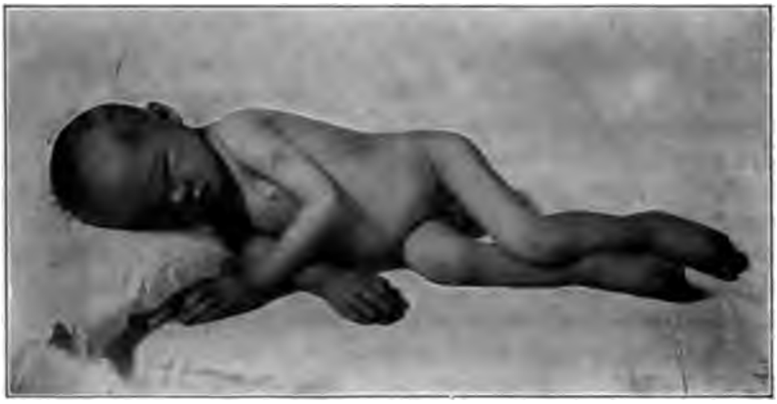

Fig. 113.—Nephritis Complicating Diphtheria. Case seen by me at the Willard Parker Hospital. (Original.)

The action of the heart should be closely followed in every case of nephritis.

Prognosis.—This is usually good. If treatment is neglected in an acute nephritis, a chronic nephritis will result. In rare instances a general toxæmia may cause convulsions and death.

Nephritis a Complication.—This disease may accompany or follow scarlet fever or diphtheria. It is also occasionally seen in most infectious diseases such as typhoid, measles, varicella, pneumonia, influenza, malaria, meningitis, and empyema.

In a study of gastro-enteritis made by Baginsky, the frequent association of nephritis was noted. This author found that the bacterium coli could frequently cause acute nephritis.

Elaine K., a girl, 5 years old, had vomiting, followed by an eruption of scarlet fever covering the entire body. The rash was distinct for three days and then faded. The physician in attendance said it was a case of mild scarlet fever. The

child was up and about during the second week following the eruption. The stomach was not carefully guarded, as the child was given a too liberal diet. On the twelfth day from the beginning of her illness she suddenly had what the family called a sinking spell. Evidences of heart weakness were noted. Two days later, or on the fourteenth day of her illness, she was again put to bed. At this time she complained of pains in her joints. The glands of the neck were swollen. The urine was somewhat scanty. On the seventeenth day she had three *very severe convulsions.*

Owing to the careless management of this case, the family discharged the first attending physician. Later the family called Dr. M. Pechner, who saw the severe toxæmia and noted the anuria. I saw this case twenty-one days after the beginning of the disease. The diagnosis of nephritis was easily made. Hardly an ounce of urine was passed during the day. The child was œdematous and had the waxy appearance seen in acute nephritis. The heart sounds were muffled. The pulse-rate was slow and irregular. The temperature was very slightly elevated, although a severe myocarditis existed. The child was placed in bed, under the care of two trained nurses.

***Treatment.*—Hot packs, diaphoretics, and diuretin, in doses of 5 to 20 grains, three and four times a day were given. Hot saline colon flushings at a temperature of 115° F. were ordered to stimulate diuresis. A bland liquid diet aided by liquids, lemonade, and cream of tartar, formed the main treatment. The child made a brilliant recovery. There were no complications after the disappearance of the nephritis.**

SECONDARY NEPHRITIS.

Secondary nephritis, following the acute infectious diseases, can best be studied by taking the type most frequently met with, namely, post-scarlatinal nephritis. (See chapter on "Scarlet Fever" for a complete description of this condition. Note also the microscopical appearance of the urine in the same chapter, page 658.)

Treatment.—Cream of tartar lemonade, a teaspoonful of cream of tartar, added to a tumblerful of ordinary lemonade, and sweeten. This should be given freely. Another drug that has served me very well is diuretin; this should be administered in doses of from 3 to 15 grains, depending on the age. This can be repeated every three or four hours, depending on the severity of the case. When diuretin is not well borne by mouth, I give it in the form of suppositories per rectum.

The following has served me very well as a diuretic in nephritis when the urine was scanty:—

℞ Potass. citrat.	2½ drachms
Ext. buchu. fluid	2½ drachms
Ext. uva ursi fl.	1 drachm 1 scruple
Syr. limonis	2 ounces
Aqua q. s. ad	4 ounces

Sig.: Teaspoonful every two or three hours.

Calomel or podophyllin, in small doses, $^1/_{20}$ grain, repeated every two or three hours, is sometimes valuable in this condition. Lithia water and the alkaline waters are generally indicated. An infusion made by scalding the ordinary parsley root (rad. petrosilini), using about one teaspoonful of the chopped root to a teacupful of boiling water, strain and sweeten. This can be given in large quantities whenever the child is thirsty. Sweet spirit of niter in doses of ½ teaspoonful, gradually increased, for a child 1 to 5 years old, and repeated every three hours, is a safe and efficient diuretic.

Jaborandi or its alkaloid, pilocarpine, are frequently advised as diuretics. I have frequently seen such cardiac depression follow their administration that I invariably warn against their use. In conclusion, I desire to lay great stress on the weakness of the heart frequently noticed after the administration of the hot-air bath. In one instance where I was called into consultation, the child died during the administration of such a bath.

PERINEPHRITIS.

An acute inflammation involving the cellular tissue which surrounds the kidney, as a rule terminating in suppuration. Some cases may resolve without suppuration.

Etiology.—It may be associated with or due to suppurative process in the kidneys. It is also found in tubercular conditions. The most frequent cause undoubtedly is traumatism. Idiopathic conditions are frequently a distinct factor.

Perinephritis is not of frequent occurrence. Townsend gives the following statistics: "Nieden, in 1897, found records of 166 cases. Twenty-three of these were under 15 years of age, the youngest being five weeks old. In 1880 Gibney reported a total of 28 cases; the ages varied from 1½ to 15 years. In 16 there was suppuration; in 12, no suppuration. In 19 cases no cause was found; in 8 cases a cause was given. Fenwick reports 76 cases: 4 children under 10 years, and 9 between 10 and 20 years, the youngest being fourteen months old. Kustre makes a report of 230 cases, 24 under 10 years of age, 17 between 10 and 20 years. Johnson, in an experience of nine years in Roosevelt Hospital, saw but one case in a child, a perinephritic abscess in a boy of 10 following a fall, not complicated by a kidney lesion. Israel, in a report of 43 cases, speaks of one in a patient 12 years old."

Out of 3689 patients treated in the outdoor department of the Children's Hospital for the Relief of the Ruptured and Crippled, in New York, during 1894-1903, only 6 cases are reported by Townsend.

Pathology and Bacteriology.—As a rule, 80 per cent. of the primary cases terminate in abscess. In secondary cases an abscess is always found. The pathological condition is the same as is found in every acute inflammation. The pus contains either the streptococcus, the staphylococcus, or colon bacillus. In rare instances the pneumococcus and the typhoid bacillus are present. In tubercular manifestations the tubercle bacillus will be found.

Symptoms.—A child that has been in good health will suddenly develop pain in the region of the kidney near the vertebra. The pain extends downward and simulates sciatica. Moving the body increases the pain; hence the spine is generally rigid. For this reason alone many cases are mistaken for Pott's disease. There will also be fever, the temperature ranging between 102° and 104° F. If the child is old enough to complain, then chills will be noted. In the ileo-costal region there is usually a palpable tumor. Children so afflicted will refuse to walk on the affected side, and will limp. They describe the pain as though it were in the groin, in the hip, or sometimes in the knee-joint. If pyelitis complicates, the urine will contain pus. Owing to the passive condition there is constipation.

A. B., 9 years old, complained of pain in the groin and also in the back on the left side. He limped and could not stand on his left leg. He complained of chills and his temperature rose to 103° F. He urinated very frequently. After a careful examination the urine was found to contain nothing abnormal. The boy was put to bed. The bowels were flushed. Owing to small roseolar spots which appeared, typhoid fever was suspected. The blood reaction for Widal was absent. The urine gave no diazo reaction. The pain increased, and after ten days of expectant treatment a swelling was noted in the loin.

This swelling gradually increased in size until it was as large as a hen's egg. A surgeon was called, who diagnosed perinephritis. An incision was made and two ounces of pus liberated. The wound was packed with sterile gauze, and, with rest, iron, and strychnine internally, the boy recovered in about five weeks.

Diagnosis.—This condition may be confounded with hip-joint disease, but hip-joint disease develops *very slowly* and has a tendency to become chronic. The symptoms, while very similar in perinephritis, *develop suddenly* from within a few days to a few weeks, and recovery may occur within a few weeks after the first symptoms are noted. In hip-joint disease the symptoms extend over months and years.

The Blood.—An important diagnostic point is the increase in the number of leucocytes, such as we find in purulent conditions in other parts of the body. In tuberculosis there is no leucocytosis unless sepsis exists.

Prognosis and Course.—Primary perinephritis runs an acute short course of a few weeks and usually terminates favorably. Gibney reports 28 cases, all of which recovered.

Treatment.—Rest in bed and a warm poultice over the affected area to hasten suppuration. The abscess should be treated on strict surgical principles. No time should be lost when fluctuation is felt, owing to the danger of pus burrowing into the peritoneal cavity.

Restorative treatment, such as diet, fresh air, iron, and codliver-oil, should form the basis of the building-up process.

PYELITIS (PYELONEPHRITIS).

This condition is rarely met with in practice. Literature records isolated cases. Monti, of Vienna; Baginsky, Steffen, and Holt are among those who have reported cases of this kind.

Causes.—Pyelonephritis occurs at all ages, but is more common in adult males than in the young. The exciting causes in adult males are stricture of the urethra, renal calculi, prostatic diseases, and infection by means of dirty catheters. That girls seem to have been favored by this disease can be seen by referring to the literature; thus Professor Baginsky reports three cases, all girls, in the *Deutsch. med. Wochenschrift*, 1897, No. 25, which he discussed at the Verein für innere Medicin in 1897. In these three cases the author was able to grow a culture of the bacterium coli from the urine. He believes the bacterium coli to be the true etiological factor in this disease. In these three cases there were marked gastroenteric disturbances; in two cases, membranous enteritis and obstinate constipation. In my case here reported there was severe constipation requiring constant treatment.

Baginsky further maintains that the bacterium coli can enter the kidneys through: first, the circulation of the blood; second, the lymph channels; third, the urethra.

Escherich,[1] Finkelstein,[2] and Trumpp[3] have reported a series of cases in which cystitis was found associated with intestinal affections. Baginsky reports two cases of pyelonephritis which could be attributed to the method of using gymnastics during orthopædic treatment for the correction of congenital dislocation of the hip-joint. In connection with the exercises a direct invasion of the bacterium coli from the urethra to the bladder could be traced. Other authors, as Posner, believe that external influences have no bearing on the etiology, and that the infection takes place from within the body. It is a well-known fact that gonorrhœal vulvo-vaginitis, especially when it occurs in little girls, can cause either pyelitis or pyelonephritis. This is termed the ascending variety. Chronic occlusion of the ureter may be followed by a pure pyelonephritis, without preceding cystitis, when the exciting agents of inflammation, which are present in the circulating blood, are eliminated through the kidneys and collect in the stagnating urine in the pelvis of the kidneys. Experimentally this disease can be produced in rabbits by ligating the ureter and injecting either bacterium coli or pyogenic cocci directly into the pelvis of the kidney or into the veins.

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[1] Mittheil. d. Vereins der Aerzte in Steiermark, 1894.

[2] Finkelstein, Jahrbuch f. Kinderheilkunde, Band xliii, page 148.

[3] Trumpp, *Ibid.*, Band xliv, page 249.

Pathology.—Increased pressure in the tubules from obstruction to the escape of urine; reflex irritation of the kidney; the presence of septic matter in the pelvis of the kidney and possibly in the lower parts of the tubules. Most frequently these three causes act, in succession and in the above order, in the same case. As a rule, when acting singly, increased pressure from obstruction will produce hydronephrosis; reflex irritation will excite one of the transient or congestive types of urinary fever; and septic matter in the pelvis of the kidney will cause acute or suppurative pyelonephritis. Increased urinary pressure alone often produces chronic interstitial nephritis as well as sacculation and dilatation of the kidney; but it rarely, if ever, causes acute or subacute interstitial nephritis. Decomposition of urine in the bladder or pelvis of the kidney may produce suppurative changes in the kidneys. If the dilatation of the kidney is not complicated by suppurative pyelitis hydronephrosis results. If it is so complicated, pyonephrosis is produced. Klebs and others believe that bacteria have migrated to the pelvis and calices of the kidney, there to produce their destructive changes, hence the names of parasitic nephritis and pyelonephritis as proposed by Klebs.

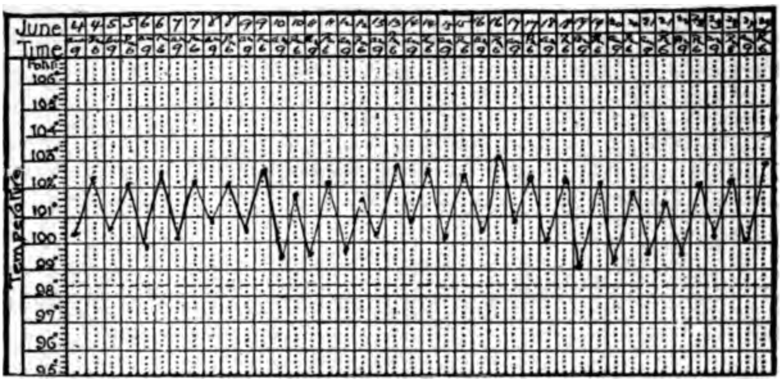

Fig. 114.—Fever Curve in Pyelonephritis. (Original.)

Lindsay Steven in a thesis on the pathology of the suppurative inflammations of the kidney, published in the *Glasgow Medical Journal*, September, 1884, corroborates Klebs's view and expresses a decided opinion that micro-organisms are at the root of the infection, and cause the formation of multiple renal abscesses consequent on diseases of the lower urinary passages. He, however, considers that there are two ways whereby the particular virus gains access to the kidney and sets up suppuration in many different points, namely: first, by means of the uriniferous tubules, and second, by means of the lymphatics of the ureter and kidney.

Steven shows that the lymphatics, quite independently of any other channel, may form the pathway of the virus from the bladder to the kidney. He admits that the two ways may be more or less combined in many cases; so that multiple miliary abscesses may originate in the same kidney, partly by the invasion of micrococci along the ureter and uriniferous tubules, and partly by their inroad along the lymphatic tracts of the kidney.

Traube and others who do not think that the bacteria themselves excite the inflammation, consider that these organisms cause the decomposition of urea into carbonate of ammonia and that this in turn excites the inflammation of the mucous membrane of the kidney.

Prognosis.—The prognosis is grave and depends on the toxin caused by the presence of the pus. The outcome of the case depends on the disappearance of the pus in the urine, which must be watched for at times.

Treatment.—A child suffering with pyelitis should be put to bed in a cool room having plenty of fresh air and sunlight.

Dietetic treatment such as milk with some alkaline water is useful. No solid food should be permitted. Whey, soups, broths, and fruit juices may be given. Oranges and lemons, owing to their diuretic effect, are valuable. The internal use of Roncegno water or Wildungen water, is also recommended for its diuretic effect.

Diuretin, in 2 to 10-grain doses three times a day, is sometimes useful. Urotropin is a very valuable drug and serves both as a diuretic and as an internal antiseptic.

THE BLADDER.

The bladder takes up almost all of the lower portion of the abdomen, as it is capable of marked distention when filled. To make proper physical examination the bladder should be emptied by catheter.

Rotch refers to a distinguished laparotomist who did not empty the bladder of a child before operating for an appendicitis; on opening the abdominal cavity he cut directly through the walls of the bladder. The urine flowing out reminded him of his failure to appreciate the fact that in early life the bladder is essentially an abdominal organ.

ECTOPIA VESICÆ CONGENITALIS (EXTROVERSION OF THE BLADDER: EXSTROPHY OF THE BLADDER).

This anatomical peculiarity is due to deficient closure of the neutral laminæ causing this hiatus of the abdominal wall in some cases. "The lower part of the abdominal wall, from the umbilicus or its neighborhood downward, may fail to close, and, coupled with this, there may be deficiency of the anterior wall of the bladder." This constitutes extroversion, sometimes called exstrophy of the bladder. The ureters are plainly visible and the urine dribbles continuously. The child is constantly wet and excoriated from the moisture and its irritation. The urine is passed in distinct jets or streams, and is especially noticeable when the child cries or strains.

The following case was presented by me to the children's clinic of the New York Post-Graduate Medical School and Hospital.[1]

A female infant, 1 year old, was seen by me. She was breast-fed and well-nourished. Soon after birth the mother noticed a constant dribbling of urine and attention was directed to a swelling situated in the region of the umbilicus. The diagnosis of exstrophy of the bladder was made. A bland ointment was prescribed to relieve the excoriation from the constant dribbling of urine. As this case required a plastic operation it was referred to Dr. Carl Beck, at the St. Mark's Hospital, for surgical treatment.

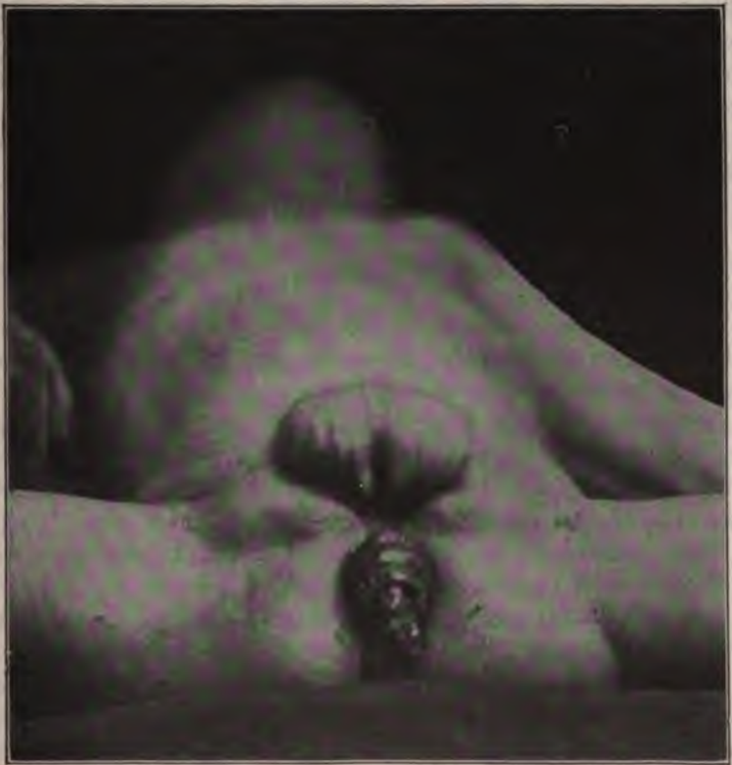

Fig. 115.—Exstrophy of the Bladder, and Prolapse of Anus. (Original.)

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[1] This case was also presented by me at the Scientific Society of German Physicians held at the residence of Dr. A. Jacobi about ten years ago.

A child in this condition should not be operated upon until 3 or 4 years of age.

INDICANURIA.

A trace of indican is found in the urine in health. A very strong indican reaction should always be regarded as abnormal and hence it is pathological. As indican is derived from indol it signifies a product of decomposition and denotes putrefaction of the proteins. It has also been found in empyema and in extensive suppurative processes where putrefaction abounds. Stagnant fæces, constipation, chronic intestinal indigestion, and some forms of putrefactive diarrhœa will give a strong indican reaction. Herter has reported the presence of indican in the urine in cases of epilepsy at the time of the seizures. In the early stages of typhoid fever, when the diagnosis is doubtful, the presence of a diazo reaction and the absence of indicanuria is a valuable aid in establishing the diagnosis.

Eliminative treatment such as cleansing the gastro-intestinal tract, besides reducing the amount of meat and eggs, will relieve an excess of indican (see articles on "Intestinal Indigestion").

ACETONÆMIA.

This condition is caused by the faulty assimilation of food. It is usually found in children over 2 years of age, and occurs most frequently in children between the ages of 5 and 12 years.

Symptoms.—Fever ranging between 102° and 105° is usually present. There is a correspondingly increased pulse rate. Some cases show nausea or singultus, anorexia, and intense thirst. Some complain of headache, and vomit. The characteristic sweet vinegar odor, "acetone breath," is present. The urine contains acetone and usually indican. The eyes appear sunken. The child presents a typhoidal appearance.

Treatment.—The diet must be restricted for twenty-four or forty-eight hours to skimmed milk or weak tea, strained soups, and fruit juices.

Large doses of soda bicarb. are indicated. In severe forms of acetonuria typhoidal symptoms may be present, and, if so, an intravenous injection of soda bicarb. is indicated.

The prognosis, as a rule, depends on the restriction of the diet, and on the amount of soda bicarb. given to counteract the effect of this poison. The injection of a 10 per cent. soda bicarb. solution into the colon will also aid in modifying this condition.

ACETONURIA.—DIACETONURIA.

We are indebted to Baginsky for a careful study of this condition. He found that it was present in children during epileptic attacks. It is also found during the height of fever. He does not believe that acetonuria bears any relation to the nervous symptoms which accompany fever.

Diacetonuria is very common during high fever. It is more frequently present than acetonuria. Binet, quoted by Holt, found diacetic acid in 69 out of 150 examinations in febrile diseases, chiefly in scarlet fever, measles, and pneumonia.

PYURIA.

When pus is found in the urine, it gives a reaction like albumin, namely, coagulates on boiling. Pus cells, however, can be seen only by placing a drop under the microscope, using low power. While pus usually indicates pyelitis or pyelonephritis, it may exude from the ureters, the bladder, the urethra, or the vagina.

Tubercular or suppurative conditions affecting the spine associated with caries of the spinal vertebræ may drain into the urinary tract. It is important, therefore, to locate the cause before treatment is commenced.

Pus from the bladder is always mixed with mucus. It may be acid or alkaline in reaction. The urine containing pus due to pyelitis has an acid reaction. If the child is old enough, a cystoscopic examination should be made. This will aid in excluding the bladder and the ureters as a possible source of the pus.

Treatment.—Demulcent drinks, alkaline waters, such as the Wildungen water, have a mild, diuretic effect. Salol and urotropin are the best drugs in doses of 2 to 5 grains three times a day. Milk, cereals, and fruits should be ordered; meat and eggs prohibited.

LORDOTIC ALBUMINURIA (ORTHOSTATIC ALBUMINURIA).

Heubner has directed attention to the presence of albumin in the urine when children are standing erect. The albumin disappears when the child assumes a horizontal position; hence albumin will be present by day, and will disappear in the urine voided at night.

Jehle, of Vienna, in his monograph published in 1909, has studied this question more closely, and finds a different cause for the presence of the albumin in the urine. He finds that when lordosis is present, and in consequence the lumbar vertebræ offend the kidneys by displacement or pressure, albumin will at once appear in the urine. That this is no theory he shows by producing an artificial lordosis. When in the dorsal position albumin will be found in the urine and disappear when such pressure is removed. This presence of albumin is found in normal kidneys in which no previous scarlatinal or other forms of nephritis have existed. It is, therefore, a mechanical type of albuminuria which can be made to appear during the lordosis and to disappear when the lordosis is corrected.

HÆMATURIA (BLOODY URINE).

Hæmaturia is known by the presence of red blood-cells in the urine. It may be due to local irritation or to systemic disease. It is therefore frequently met with during the course of a severe attack of acute nephritis complicating scarlet fever. A case of this kind is reported in the chapter on "Scarlet Fever." I have frequently seen hæmaturia during the course of the hæmorrhagic form of diphtheria while on duty at the Willard Parker Hospital. I have also seen hæmaturia in scurvy.

It is important to remember that irritation caused by a calculus in the kidney, the ureter, or the bladder may give rise to bloody urine. Direct injury to the kidney or bladder, or a tumor in the bladder, may cause bloody urine.

The general causes frequently met with are hæmorrhagic diseases of the new-born; the blood dyscrasiæ, such as scurvy, purpura, and hæmophilia; and infectious diseases, particularly malaria, typhoid, variola, scarlet fever, and influenza. In most of these cases the amount of blood passed is small. When it is large it may appear in the urine as clear blood or as clots, or it may impart simply a reddish or smoky color to the urine. The color, however, is not a reliable guide; the best of all is the microscopic examination. For a simple chemical test guaiacum may be used (Holt).

It is a difficult matter to discover the source of blood in some cases, although large hæmorrhage is more apt to result from the kidneys than from the bladder. To differentiate we must rely on the presence of casts from the renal tubules; thus we can satisfy ourselves of the *renal origin* of the hæmorrhage.

The prognosis depends on the amount of hæmorrhage and the general condition of the child. It should always be regarded as a bad symptom, although not necessarily fatal.

Treatment.—The application of an ice-bag or dry cups over the region of the kidneys, rest in bed, Squibb's ergot, gallic acid, 3 to 10 grains, repeated every three or four hours, or the fluid extract of hydrastis canadensis, in 3- to 10- drop doses, for a child 2 years old, repeated every three or four hours, will sometimes do good.

The food is best given either cool or very cold. If the child is old enough, small pieces of cracked ice or ice cream may be given until the blood disappears.

HÆMOGLOBINURIA.

Instead of *blood cells* in the urine this condition manifests itself by the presence of *blood pigment* in the urine. Sometimes the urine is blackish. Albumin may frequently be found associated with hæmoglobin. The pathology of this condition is at present unknown. It is very easy to recognize the pigment under the microscope. It can also be noted by Heller's test. The most positive method of diagnosis is the spectroscope.

Not infrequently this condition is met with in the infectious diseases, which is evidently due to the effect of the toxins generated by the specific micro-organisms causing these diseases. When an irritant poison, such as carbolic acid, is swallowed, this condition is encountered and recognized, clinically, by the familiar term "smoky urine."

Paroxysmal hæmoglobinuria is occasionally met with in childhood. It is usually associated with syphilis. Other cases have been reported.[1]

GLYCOSURIA.

The appearance of sugar in the urine is not necessarily pathological. Grosz published a series of investigations dealing with this condition. He found that glycosuria occurs in nursing infants who have either functional or inflammatory disturbances of digestion. He did not see it in perfectly healthy nursing infants. The sugar found in the urine reacts to Fehling's test; it does not respond to the fermentation test. The polariscope shows that it has the power of dextro-rotation, so that the sugar present is possibly milk sugar or one of its derivatives.

Artificial glycosuria can be produced by administering a large quantity of milk sugar in the food; hence it may be presumed that the sugar excreted in the urine is simply the excess of what could not be absorbed in the system.

Glycosuria was frequently noted by me in the urine of children fed exclusively on Nestlé's food. When this form of feeding was discontinued, the glycosuria disappeared. These cases could therefore be classified under the head of *dietetic glycosuria.*

DIABETES INSIPIDUS (POLYURIA).

This is a very rare condition in children. Its etiology is obscure, although males are more frequently attacked than females. Little is known of its origin excepting that traumatism involving the brain has been known to be followed by diabetes insipidus.

The pathology of this disease is unknown. It is supposed to be a neurosis, but whether the lesion is near the fourth ventricle, or whether its seat is in the renal nerves, has not yet been determined.

Symptoms.—Excessive thirst and an excess of urine constitute the main symptoms. From five to ten pints or even more may be passed in twenty-four hours. The urine looks like water and has a specific gravity from 1001 to 1005. In some cases mosite (muscle sugar) has been found (Holt). Albumin and grape sugar are not found. Urea is excreted in large quantities, whereas uric acid is not. Restlessness by day, headache, insomnia, and marked irritability are the chief symptoms. Unilateral flushes of the face and one ear and similar vasomotor disturbances are present. There is an absence of perspiration. The skin is dry. Development is retarded, especially growth. The appetite remains good. The temperature may be subnormal.

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[1] Archives of Pediatrics.

Prognosis.—The disease has been known to last years. Some cases recover spontaneously. As a rule, it is wise to give a guarded prognosis. Cases of diabetes insipidus are very susceptible to other diseases and usually die from some complication.

Treatment.—A very nutritious diet consisting of milk, meat, eggs, and fruit with some restriction as to the quantity of liquid should be made. Restoratives such as Fowler's solution, iron, and codliver-oil will sometimes do good. When marked nervous symptoms exist, then atropine, Dover's powder, belladonna and the bromides may be tried. Change of air such as an ocean voyage or mountain air may be of benefit.

DIABETES MELLITUS.

The pathological studies of Weichselbaum and Opie at the Rockefeller Institute have established the relationship which the pancreas and more especially the islands of Langerhans bear to this disease. The internal secretions, notably the adrenal system, play an important part in influencing the metabolism of fat, casein, and the carbohydrates. Congenital syphilis is sometimes responsible for diabetes. Predisposition must also be considered when the tendency toward family diabetes is noted.

Saundby, in a report of 2011 cases of diabetes in adults and children, found only 15 occurring in children under 5 years of age, and 58 in children under 10 years. The extreme rarity of diabetes is recognized.

Acidosis is generally considered to be a result of the diabetic condition. It is probable, however, that an acid condition may have much to do with the causation of diabetes. This condition has been termed "acidæmia"—hyperacidity or, rather, hypoalkalinity of the blood. It has no connection with the term "acidosis," this latter being considered as occurring only when oxybutyric acid or its congeners (acetone or diacetic acid) are present. Acidæmia is an extremely common, everyday occurrence and, unfortunately, it is all too often overlooked in routine work. A one-sided dietary in which meats, fish, fats, etc., predominate produces organic acids, whereas a dietary of cereals, milk, vegetables, and fruits tends to maintain the normal alkaline condition by reason of the food-salts they contain in their best and most assimilable form.

According to the theory of Naunyn and his school, the diminution of the alkalinity of the blood and tissues is at the root of the essential nature of the diabetic intoxication. This they regard as a true acid poisoning, the culminating point of which is eventually diabetic coma.

The carbohydrates form about one-half the diet of a growing child. The adult diet contains about one-third carbohydrates. The liver, pancreas, and intestinal glands of the child assimilate much more carbohydrate than those of the adult.

Symptoms.—The most prominent symptoms noticeable are irritability and general indisposition, increased thirst with associated polyuria. Sometimes the extreme thirst and polyuria are wanting. Fever seldom occurs. Tenderness is sometimes present over the region of the pancreas. The knee-jerks are sometimes entirely absent during the height of the disease. When a tendency toward slow healing is noted in surgical conditions, then we should suspect glycosuria. Albumin when present is a serious factor. Wegeli found that in 13 cases ending fatally albumin was present. Acetone and diacetic acid are very frequently found in infantile glycosuria.

The urine may vary between 1½ and 10 pints in twenty-four hours. The specific gravity varies between 1.008 and 1.050. The quantity of sugar varies between 1 and 6 per cent., depending on the time of the day and the type of food ingested. Albumin when present is usually a serious complication.

Prognosis.—The prognosis is always grave. When the urine contains diacetic and oxybutyric acids the condition is more serious than when the urine contains sugar alone.

Roughly stated, the duration of the disease may be about six months, although some children linger for years.

Treatment.—The body demands carbohydrates; hence the treatment should aim to secure a tolerance for carbohydrate food. Milk, oatmeal occasionally, cabbage, lettuce, asparagus, vegetable soups of tomato or spinach, eggs, chicken, beef, and nuts, chiefly almonds, should form the bulk of the diet. Honey contains levulose and is sometimes well borne.

A school child should be removed from school and sent to the country. The method of living should be entirely changed. When acidosis is present, 10 to 15 grains of bicarbonate of soda may be given three or four times a day. Atropine, $^1/_{200}$ to $^1/_{100}$ grain three times a day, and methyl bromide, $^1/_{120}$ grain, should be tried.

COLICYSTITIS.

We are chiefly indebted to Escherich for calling our attention to this condition.

Bacteriology and Pathology.—The bacterium coli commune gives rise to this condition. The bacteria can migrate through the female urethra and set up a cystitis. When the intestinal mucous membrane is not intact, as, for example, in catarrhal enteritis, these bacteria can enter the bladder by migrating through the intestinal mucous membrane.

Symptoms.—There is fever and irritability of the bladder shown by tenesmus. The urine contains pus, sometimes traces of albumin, and has a very foul odor. As a rule, the urine is milky or cloudy, or it may be dark in color. In some cases there may be vomiting and headache associated with pains in the bladder and in the back.

Prognosis.—The prognosis is good.

Treatment.—Internally, 3 to 5 grains of urotropin, several times a day, or oleum gaultheria, 1 to 3 drops, three times a day, or salol, 3- to 5- grain doses, three times a day, may be given.

Locally.—The bladder should be washed with a double current catheter. A weak permanganate of potash solution should be used, 3 or 4 ounces being injected at one time; this should be continued until several pints have been used. In some cases irrigations of a bichloride of mercury solution, 1 to 4000, repeated several times a day, may be useful.

URETHRAL CALCULI (VESICAL CALCULI; STONE IN THE BLADDER).

This condition is extremely rare in infancy. It is not so rare in children after the third year, owing to their solid diet. Stone in the bladder is usually composed of uric acid, and is often the result of uric acid infarction in the kidney. In this condition calculi pass from the pelvis of the kidney through the ureters and lodge in the bladder.

Symptoms.—While urinating there will be a sudden cessation of the flow of urine. Pain either in the penis or in the perineum is sometimes described. As has been described (in the articles on "Cystitis"), whenever severe tenesmus exists, causing prolapse of the rectum without definite intestinal trouble, we should suspect trouble in the bladder. Incontinence of urine is sometimes present.

Diagnosis.—If the child is old enough a diagnosis can sometimes be made by inserting one finger into the rectum and pressing over the bladder in the abdomen (bimanual examination). Although this method of bimanual palpation is frequently valuable, it sometimes gives negative results. The surest method is to explore the bladder with a sound. In very sensitive children cocaine may be injected into the urethra before the sound is passed. In exceptional cases, only with the aid of an anæsthetic, can a positive diagnosis be made.

Treatment.—Such cases should be treated by the surgeon, although an attempt at crushing the stone might be made. The radical operation of suprapubic lithotomy may be necessary.

Very large calculi have been seen by me in the Stephanie Children's Hospital, in Buda-Pest. Professor Bokai told me that from certain districts in Hungary they receive many cases of large vesical and urethral calculi. It is therefore quite evident that the calculi are intimately associated with the geographical conditions favoring the same.

ACUTE CYSTITIS.

This condition is seldom seen in children.

Etiology.—It is most usually due to the invasion of pathogenic bacteria, such as the bacterium coli and the gonococcus.

It is most frequently the result of an extension of an infection from the external genitals through the urethra into the bladder, so that blenorrhœa in children may be an exciting cause of acute cystitis. It has also been known to arise from typhoid bacilli eliminated through the kidneys by the urine.

Stone in the bladder and intestinal irritants, such as turpentine or copaiba, have been known to cause cystitis.

Females are more prone to this affection than males.

Symptoms.—Very frequent desire to urinate, accompanied by pain on urination, is the principal symptom. The urine has a reddish color, but later in the disease has a light color. Its specific gravity is high. The reaction of the urine is alkaline. On standing there is a thick sediment consisting of mucus, pus, and blood. Microscopically, there are pus corpuscles, squamous epithelium, and blood-corpuscles. In females it is necessary to use a catheter in drawing off the urine to obtain a specimen for examination, as the epithelium of the bladder and the vagina are strikingly similar.

Prognosis.—This is invariably good.

Treatment.—Bladder washing with mild antiseptic solutions, such as a 1 per cent. boric acid or bichloride, 1 to 5000, or a weak permanganate of potash solution, is useful in some cases. Alkaline waters, such as the White Rock, Lithia, or Appollinaris, in large quantities should be given.

Internally the diet should be regulated so that the child receives milk and Seltzer, thin soups and broths, fruit and fruit juices. Meat and all spices must be avoided. Only bland articles may be permitted.

Drug Treatment.—Urotropin, in doses of 5 to 10 grains, several times a day, is very beneficial, or Dover's powder, 1 or 2 grains, several times a day, will do good. In very high fever an ice-bag can be applied over the bladder.

CHRONIC CYSTITIS.

This condition is usually associated with a malignant growth in the bladder, such as a tumor, or frequently by stone in the bladder. It may also be due to a general tuberculosis with special local manifestations in the bladder. The composition of calculus is mainly uric acid, with large quantities of phosphates from the alkaline urine.

Symptoms.—From the constant dribbling of urine the child will have an offensive urine smell resembling ammonia about him.

There is an irritation around the external genitals, due to excoriation from the moisture. If stone is the cause of this condition the urine will be interrupted while passing and the child will complain of pain. The pain is difficult to localize, although it is described as being at the end of the penis. Girls will localize the pain at the meatus. From severe tenesmus there may be prolapse of the rectum.

The urine resembles the urine of an acute cystitis. Tubercle bacilli are found in bladder tuberculosis.

Prognosis.—This depends upon the condition of the child and on the cause of this affection. A cautious prognosis is necessary in tuberculous affection, or if a tumor exists.

Treatment.—If a stone is present the treatment is surgical. Urotropin and salol are very valuable, and I have seen permanent benefit from their use.

℞ Sodium sulpho-carbonate .... 25 grains

Sig.: Divide into 5 powders. One powder every three hours in an alkaline water is also beneficial in some cases.

Bladder washing and the diet as described in the article on "Acute Cystitis" should be employed in chronic cases.

When there is a general atony of the body, then this condition will frequently result in the weakening of the sphincter vesicæ muscle or in the spasm of the detrusor urinæ muscle. Other conditions causing enuresis are lithiasis vesicalis, and where stones are suspected the bladder must be very cautiously inspected.

Children that convalesce from a severe form of disease, such as typhoid fever or any long-existing febrile disorders, will usually have enuresis as a result of a general breaking down of the body wherein the muscles lose their tone.

Other conditions causing irritation may be enumerated as congenital phimosis or adhesions of the prepuce, strictures of the urethra; also irritations from worms, such as ascarides, commonly known as pin-worms; fissures of the anus; frequently also in older children masturbation and vulvitis may be considered as possible causes of this condition. (Read article on "Lithuria.")

Calcareous deposits in the kidney or stone in the bladder, the overloading of the urine with lithates or phosphates, have frequently caused abnormal irritations resulting in enuresis.

ENURESIS.

An involuntary emptying of the bladder during the day is known as enuresis diurna. When this condition exists at night it is known as enuresis nocturna.

Causes.—(*a*) Organic; (*b*) functional.

Organic Causes.—Any inflammatory condition involving the urethra or bladder, or diseases of the brain or spinal cord, frequently cause this condition.

Thiemich[1] considers this condition, when occurring in a child who has been clean for months or years, and who shows no sign of organic disease of the urogenital or nervous system, as a sign of that general neurosis, hysteria. In children hysteria usually occurs in a monosymptomatic form. The children who suffer from enuresis at some period usually come of a neuropathic family, and later show some other symptoms of hysteria.

Functional Causes: Adenoids.—It is not infrequent to find that obstructions of the nose and in the nasopharyngeal spaces can cause enuresis. One of the most frequent causes met with is adenoids. It is a safe rule to examine the pharyngeal vault when enuresis exists. My experience has been that over 50 per cent. of the cases of enuresis seen in my clinic have adenoid vegetations.

Tight Prepuce.—If other irritations, such as a tight prepuce, exist, then circumcision must be insisted upon. If irritation exists in the urine on account of an excess of lithates or phosphates, then internal treatment must be directed toward relieving this condition. (Read article on "Lithæmia.")

Prognosis.—The prognosis of this condition is usually good. In obstinate cases it may be valuable to insist on a change of air; thus, removing the patient from the city to the country or to the seashore is of value in some severe cases.

Treatment.—A very bland, non-irritating diet, consisting of cereals and milk, will be indicated. All spices, alcoholics, coffee, and tea must be prohibited. Do not permit liquids to be taken before retiring. It is also important to have the bladder emptied immediately before retiring.

Drug Treatment.—One of the best drugs is strychnine in doses of $^1/_{100}$ grain, three times a day, gradually increased. In addition thereto small doses, $^1/_{10}$ grain, gradually increased, of the extract of belladonna. When a general atony exists, then nothing will be better than iron given in the form of elixir of quinine, iron, and strychnine. Massage and gentle friction of the whole body, cold sponging, especially of the spine, are valuable adjuvants to the treatment of this condition. A cold douche directed to the spine, especially to the lumbar region, will be found of great assistance.

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[1] Berl. klin. Woch., vol. xxxviii, No. 31.

Fowler's solution and iron are very valuable in weak children.

For incontinence of urine, internally may be given:—

℞ Ext. rhus aromaticæ, fl.	10 minims
Syrupi aromatici	20 minims
Aq. destillatæ q. s. ad	1 drachm

Sig.: This amount to be given three times a day.

Or:—

℞ Liq. atropinæ sulphatis	1½ drachms
Liq. strychninæ hydrochloratis	45 minims
Syr. aurant q. s. ad	1 ounce

Sig.: For a child 14 years old, 5 drops at night; increase gradually. Younger children in proportion.

The Use of Electricity.—Faradic electricity applied over the bladder, and also over the lumbar region of the spine for several minutes every day, and gradually decreased to every two or three days, is of value in some cases.

According to Thiemich, excellent results are obtained by means of painful faradization, not necessarily of the sphincter vesicæ, but of the arms, back, or thighs. Care should be taken to prevent the impression that the treatment is a punishment, but instead it should be explained that the measure is certain of success, even though painful. More than one application is rarely required if care and tact be exercised. As in all forms of hysteria, isolation and removal from home are the most potent of all remedies.

Mechanical Treatment.—The passage of cold sounds and the dilatation of the urethra by this means are sometimes very effectual. Elevating the foot of the bed is of value in some cases. The child should not be allowed to sleep on its back. To prevent this position it is advisable to tie a towel around the child's body so that the knot is in the center of the back. This will awaken the child if it turns on its back and will compel it to sleep on the side.

PART VI.

DISEASES OF THE RESPIRATORY SYSTEM.

CHAPTER I.

DISEASES OF THE NOSE AND THROAT.

ACUTE NASAL CATARRH (RHINITIS; CORYZA).

INFANTS sneeze normally during the first few days of life, the mechanical irritation of dust in the air being the cause of the same. The great difference between the intrauterine temperature and the temperature of the air renders the new-born baby sensitive and invites respiratory catarrh.

Etiology.—The micrococcus catarrhalis is usually found to be the cause of this condition. Weakened and delicate infants are more susceptible to the development of nasal catarrh. For this reason infants with hereditary disease, such as syphilis, have constant catarrh.

The handkerchief containing dried secretions laden with bacteria frequently disseminates this disease. Children who are too warmly clad and muffled are rendered more sensitive; they are susceptible and usually suffer with rhinitis. Recurring catarrh usually indicates the presence of adenoids. The vault of the pharynx should be explored with the finger for a positive diagnosis.

Diagnosis.—Acute nasal catarrh must not be confounded with syphilitic rhinitis. The history should be carefully noted. Rhinitis is one of the earliest symptoms of measles; hence the buccal mucous membrane should always be examined for the presence of an enanthem.

If the temperature is high—102° to 103° F.—and there is an eruption, then the possibility of measles should not be overlooked. In all cases of measles the pharynx and tonsils should be carefully examined. Diphtheria of the pharynx frequently has an acute rhinitis associated with it. Pertussis is very often preceded by rhinitis. Inflammation of the lachrymal duct is at times associated, causing acute conjunctivitis. Sometimes the inflammation will extend through the Eustachian tube and cause otitis. In older children deafness is frequently caused by closure of the Eustachian tubes.

Treatment.—*Hygienic Treatment:* Put the child to bed if there is fever, but if the temperature is normal then keep the child indoors in a room with a temperature of 70° F. The body should be warmly clad after having been given a good tub bath, followed by friction with a coarse Turkish towel.

Rhinitis tablets, containing the following ingredients, for the prophylactic and general treatment of catarrh of the nose and throat, have been used by me:—

℞	Soda salicylate	1 grain
	Tinct. aconite	1 minim
	Tinct. belladonna	$^{1}/_{10}$ minim

The above quantity is for one tablet.

One tablet can be given with water every three or four hours to a child 2 years old; smaller children in proportion.

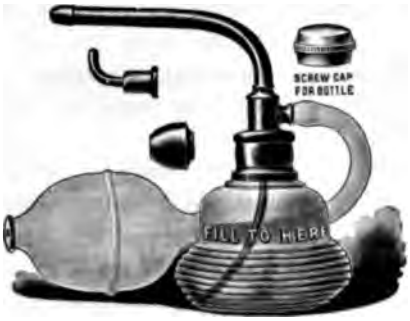

Fig. 116.—Atomizer.

Medicinal Treatment.—The gastro-intestinal tract requires cleansing. A drachm of castor-oil at the commencement of treatment is beneficial. The best drugs are quinine and belladonna given internally. The quinine chocolates, 1 grain of quinine, can be given to a child 1 year old; to an infant six months old one-half the dose. Fluid extract of belladonna, $^{1}/_{16}$ to ½ minim, three times a day. Salol tablets, containing 1 grain of salol, can be given with benefit every three or four hours.

Local Treatment.—A solution of adrenalin chloride, 1 to 10,000, may be used to cleanse the nostrils in very young infants. In older children a solution of 1 to 4000 may be used for the same purpose.

The discharge can also be removed by irrigating with a 1 per cent. boracic acid or borax solution or a 1 per cent. table salt solution, containing some glycerine, with an atomizer (see Fig. 116) or with Lefferts's posterior and anterior nasal syringe, followed by an alboline spray. The following prescription is useful for the nasal toilet:—

℞	Table salt	1 drachm
	Borax	1 drachm
	Water	8 ounces

Aspirin or novaspirin in 1- to 3- grain doses every three hours, depending on the age of the child, is indicated. Locally, the inunction of the following ointment in the nostrils will lessen the thickened nasal secretion.

℞ Pulv. camphor	5 grains
Pulv. acid boric	10 grains
Menthol	1 grain
Vaseline	1 ounce

Other valuable preparations for cleansing the naso-pharyngeal spaces are Dobell's solution, borolyptol, and glycothymoline.

Dobell's Solution.

℞ Sodium biborate	1 drachm
Sodium bicarb.	1 drachm
Glyc. of carb. acid	2 drachms
Water to make	½ pint

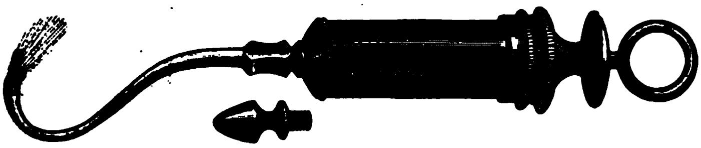

Fig. 117.—Lefferts's Posterior and Anterior Nasal Syringe.

Borolyptol contains 5 per cent. acetoboroglyceride; 0.2 per cent. formaldehyde, in combination with the active antiseptic constituents of pinus pumilio, eucalyptus, myrrh, storax, and benzoin.

This is a very bland, mildly astringent solution adapted for the naso-pharynx. I frequently use this solution as a menstruum for carbolic acid or bichloride. All solutions used in the nose should be non-irritant; hence caustics should be avoided.

Seiler's Solution.

℞ Sod. bicarb.	1 ounce
Sod. biborate	1 ounce
Sod. benzoat	20 grains
Sol. salicylate	20 grains
Eucalyptol	10 grains
Thymol	10 grains
Menthol	5 grains
Oil of gaultheria	6 drops
Glycerine	8½ ounces
Alcohol	2 ounces
Water	16 ounces

Tablets sold in shops under the name of Seiler's tablets can be dissolved in 4 ounces of water. They are of the same strength as the solution here mentioned.

Cocaine and eucaine, which are so valuable in adults, should not be used in children. My preference is for novocain. *In older children the inhalation of equal parts of tincture of iodine and aqua ammonia every half-hour will frequently abort the disease.*

Dietetic Treatment.—The nursing infant should be fed at regular intervals. If bottle-fed the same regularity should be observed. No stimulants should be given. It is unwise to give codliver-oil or other restoratives when radical treatment is called for.

NASO-PHARYNGEAL CATARRH FREQUENTLY CAUSES GASTRIC CATARRH.

The association of naso-pharyngeal catarrh with catarrh of the stomach may at first seem peculiar. When, however, the anatomical relationship of the mucous membrane of the naso-pharynx with the œsophagus and stomach are considered, an extension of the disease can easily be understood. There are certain points which have a decided bearing on the etiology of gastric catarrh when caused by naso-pharyngeal disease. Such are:—

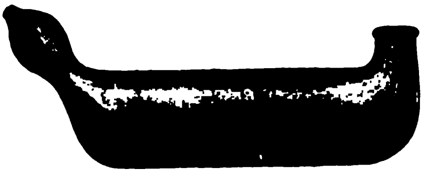

Fig. 118.—Lenox Nasal Douche.

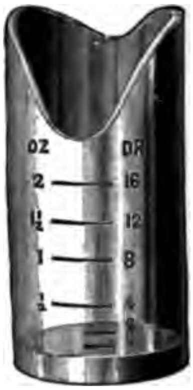

Fig. 119.—Graduated Douche Suitable for Older Children.

1. The fact that children rarely, infants never, expectorate. When they have post-nasal catarrh and there is an irritation from mucous or muco-purulent secretion infants invariably swallow the same. It is for this reason that the old-fashioned dose of ipecac or castor-oil was given, not to relieve the cough nor to hasten the expectoration, but rather to cleanse the stomach from non-expectorated secretion.

2. *Loss of Appetite.*—The loss of appetite, usually associated with severe naso-pharyngeal catarrh in which the stomach has been normal up to the beginning of the attack, is usually due to the swallowing of large quantities of this infectious secretion.

The benefit derived from curing a cold with a dose of castor-oil simply means removing some of the swallowed muco-purulent secretion from the stomach which should have been expectorated.

When catarrhal disease affecting the naso-pharyngeal space is muco-purulent and continues for a long time in very young infants, we can easily see why the loss of appetite may be the means of causing deficient nutrition. Such cases may end fatally. The importance of attending to diseases in the naso-pharynx can be seen when it is considered that diphtheria can spread from the pharynx to the œsophagus, and also to the stomach.

While it is true that diphtheritic gastritis is reported very rarely, it is well to bear such cases in mind, for they show the great danger to the stomach from an infectious catarrh located at the food entrance. There is usually a deficiency of hydrochloric acid secretion in all severe catarrhal diseases. This is most apparent in those febrile conditions which accompany diphtheria. It is for this reason that it is not very difficult for the stomach to be the seat of an infection if diphtheritic membrane is swallowed.

It is of the greatest importance to have every child's throat in a normal condition. Adenoid vegetations and diseased tonsils favor the development of malignant disease. The vast majority of patients who are infected with diphtheria owe this infection to the diseased state of their throat, which favors the development of pathogenic bacteria. This can as easily be verified in children as in adults. *It is rare to find a case of diphtheria in which a previous normal throat existed. Hence it would seem plausible to eradicate all trifling as well as serious nose and throat disease, and aim to secure a healthy state if we are to ward off infections.*

INFLUENZA (LA GRIPPE).

Commonly known as "grip" or "epidemic catarrhal fever."

This is an acute infectious disease with which catarrhal disturbances of the respiratory or gastro-intestinal organs are usually associated. There is also a profound nervous disturbance with marked perspiration and very high fever.

The disease occurs epidemically, spreading from case to case with great rapidity, so that it was formerly attributed to meteorologic conditions. It is for this reason known and described by the Germans as a "Blitzkatarrh." The disease occurs most frequently in cold and damp weather, and frequently attacks the same person several times.

Bacteriology.—The disease is caused by a very small bacillus, about 0.8 micro-millimeter long and 0.4 micro-millimeter broad.

This bacillus was first discovered by Pfeiffer, in 1892. It stains very intensely at the ends and resembles a diplococcus.

In the mucous membrane of the nose, throat, and lungs we find the greatest number of bacilli; thus, it is reasonable to suppose that the infection takes place through the respiratory tract, and in this manner the germs gain an entrance into the body.

The bacillus of Pfeiffer only is present in influenza. The poison generated by this germ resembles a group of bacterial proteins, described by Buchner. Such poisons occur within germs and are excreted, but only to a limited extent, in the media in which they grow. Examples of these germs are the diphtheria and tetanus bacilli. Such toxins affect the central nervous system very powerfully. Thus we find severe nervous depression in the course of an attack of influenza, just as we do in the course of a severe case of diphtheria. The influenza bacillus is frequently associated with other pyogenic bacteria. The tendency of mixed infection in the course of influenza is to generate pus. It is therefore a wise plan to examine the middle ear for possible suppurative conditions.

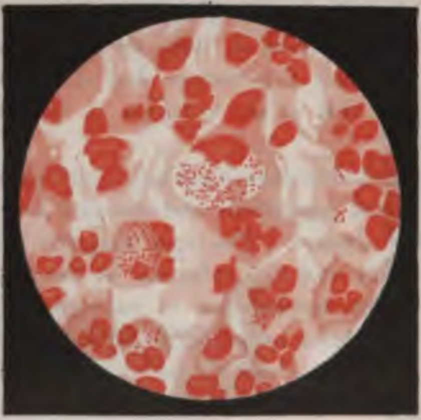

Fig. 120.—Influenza Bacilli. Sputum smear, stained with dilute Ziehl's solution. Bacilli chiefly intracellular; most of them show thickened ends. X 800. (Lenhartz-Brooks.)

Not infrequently tuberculosis is associated with or follows a severe attack of influenza.

Symptoms.—When children are old enough to complain, then one of the most frequent subjective symptoms will be either a violent headache or pains in the muscles of the body. In young children and nurslings violent vomiting, associated with diarrhœa, may be the initial symptoms of the disease. While fever usually accompanies an attack of influenza, there are many cases in which a *subnormal* temperature is present. As has been previously stated, chills or rigors are seldom or never present.

Convulsions in young children are frequently a forerunner of an attack of influenza. The differential diagnosis between an attack of measles and influenza is sometimes quite difficult. Both commence with sneezing, coughing, and catarrhal symptoms, with suffused eyes, and an *eruption resembling measles* may frequently be found in influenza.

Diagnosis.—The diagnosis of this disease is sometimes very difficult. If an epidemic exists, or if several members in a family are attacked with grip and the children suddenly exhibit symptoms of malaise or have a disordered stomach, and show high fever without any apparent reason, then influenza should be suspected. If catarrhal symptoms associated with influenza present themselves, then such symptoms are of a more severe type than those usually seen in simple coryza.

An eruption resembling scarlet fever, complicated by tonsillitis or pharyngeal symptoms, will baffle the diagnostic ability of the physician, but the presence of influenza in a house will aid in eliminating other diseases and assist in establishing the true diagnosis. Not infrequently a child will suddenly show high fever and diarrhœa, with severe nervous depression, intense thirst, and typhoid tongue, with here and there small lenticular spots which may so resemble typhoid fever that only the course of the disease and constant watching will aid in making a correct diagnosis. Where such symptoms exist we must resort to an examination of the urine, and it is here that the diazo reaction will render material assistance. In ad-

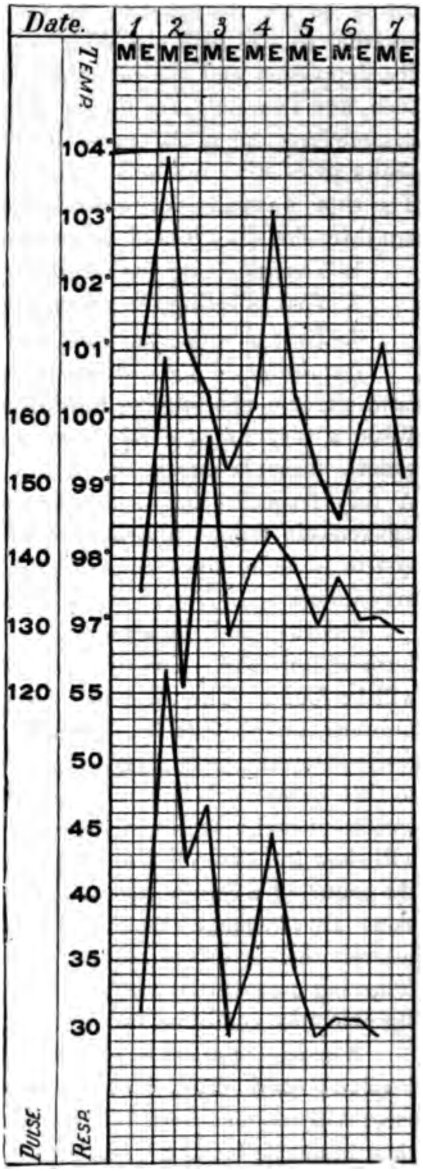

Fig. 121.—Case of Influenza Pneumonia. Child about eight months old. Suffered severe prostration from the toxæmia. Note the very high pulse-rate. Treatment consisted in using steam impregnated with beechwood creosote, mild laxative and careful diet. Case recovered. (Original.)

dition to the examination of the urine, the Widal reaction should be resorted to. If both the Widal and the diazo reaction are absent, and if the depression and the catarrhal symptoms resembling influenza continue, then, and then only, should the diagnosis of influenza be made. The fever is more irregular in the course of influenza than it is in typhoid, and usually shows an evening fall and a morning rise, which is the reverse of typhoid. The skin is usually very pale in typhoid and flushed in influenza. There are three definite types of influenza most usually met with in children:—

1. That affecting the respiratory tract.
2. That affecting the gastroenteric tract.
3. That in which the brain and nervous system are largely affected.

Respiratory Type.—When the respiratory tract is involved we usually have either a pharyngitis, tonsillitis, pneumonia, or a broncho-pneumonia. When a very young child shows severe broncho-pneumonia and there is a general toxæmia associated with it, then the prognosis is usually very bad. A very frequent complication in this condition is tuberculosis; thus, if tuberculosis follows a severe attack of influenza in a young child whose system is undermined from a long and tedious disease, then grave results may follow.

Gastro-enteric Type.—In very young children this is the most frequent form of influenza. Vomiting and diarrhœa, usually accompanied by fever, will be found. The child will suddenly refuse to take the breast, if it is a nursling, or refuse to take bottle if it is hand-fed. It will also show great restlessness and seem dissatisfied and peevish. The sleep will be disturbed, so that insomnia is a very frequent symptom. In spite of careful dietetic treatment and a thorough cleansing of the gastro-intestinal tract, the child will show the same clinical picture in mid-winter as we are familiar with in the course of a severe type of summer complaint in mid-summer. Convulsions are frequent, though not always present. Such children suffer severely, owing to the malnutrition and owing to the extreme exhaustion following a continued vomiting or diarrhœa. They lose flesh and resemble the atrophied condition following an acute summer complaint.

Nervous Type.—This is usually the most serious form of the disease, involving, as it does, the brain and the nervous system. In this type we meet with extreme irritability, and if the child is old enough to complain then headache forms a prominent symptom, so also will pains in the limbs and in all the muscles of the body be complained of. Twitching is sometimes a marked symptom; convulsions are very frequent.

If the case of influenza is the only one in the family the physician may believe that he is dealing with a meningitis. Such symptoms as photophobia, stupor, coma, retraction of the head, are frequently present; the pulse is rapid, the temperature is frequently very high, although the usual temperature ranges between 101° and 103° F. When severe toxæmia exists it is not infrequent to find a subnormal temperature.

Complications.—The influenza bacillus has a tendency to develop pus; hence, a nasopharyngeal catarrh may extend through the Eustachian tube and develop mastoid. If influenza attacks the lung and fever persists, look for empyema. Be sure to examine the urine, as influenza may cause pyelitis, especially if the fever is of an intermittent character. The influenza bacillus may enter the frontal sinus through the nose and set up a meningitis, which may be of a suppurative character.

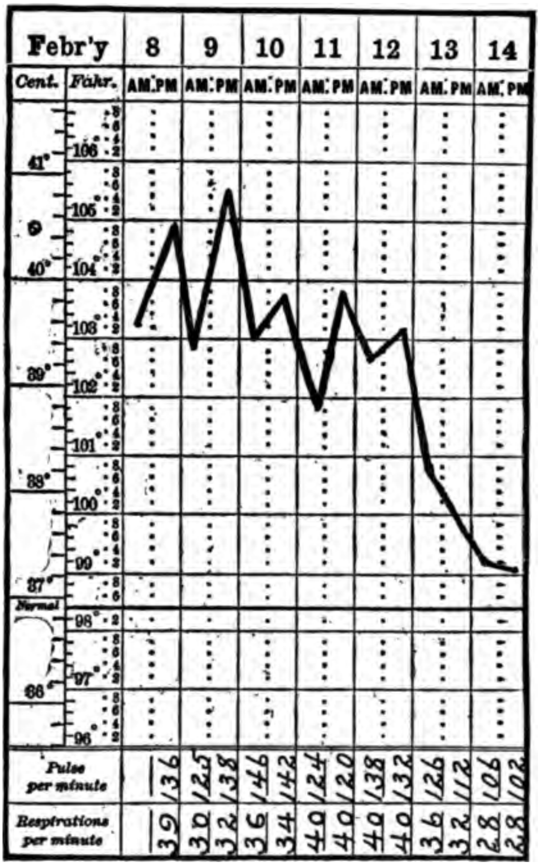

Fig. 122.—Case of Influenza Pneumonia in a Child Two Years Old. Note the irregular type of fever and compare the steady heart's action as indicated by the pulse. Child recovered. (Original.)

J. Madison Taylor contends that neuritis rarely follows influenza in children, whereas it is a common sequela in adults.

Nephritis occasionally complicates influenza.

Milton Miller[1] reports 40 cases of influenzal nephritis taken from literature. He reports a very interesting case of a child that had persistent vomiting and slight diarrhœa; later on œdema of the limbs and suppression of urine.

The course of influenza in children is hard to define. Some children will be ill a week or ten days; others will show the evidence of systemic infection months after an attack commenced. For this reason every case of influenza should be carefully supervised during the convalescence.

Prognosis.—This depends on the condition of the child prior to an attack. If, for example, an infant nursing at the breast is attacked with a severe form of influenza, then the prognosis may be reasonably good. If, however, the "bottle baby," with an existing rickets, is attacked in a similar manner, then the prognosis is certainly much worse than it would be otherwise; thus the general systemic condition prior to the infection of the grip will usually suggest the probable outcome of the disease. On the other hand a strong, robust child, having a severe form of influenza, complicated by middle-ear disease, with mastoid or cerebral complications, necessarily means a bad prognosis. The same rule would apply to all complications following influenza, in which exhaustion from a lengthy attack, besides the difficulty of properly feeding and sustaining life, would invite a fatal termination.

The sheet anchor of success would be the good condition of the heart, the exclusion of kidney complication, and also the fact that the infant takes a reasonable quantity of food. A progressive weakness of the heart or the devitalized state of the blood from prolonged pneumonia would mean a grave prognosis; thus all would depend on limiting the extent of the disease and the avoidance of complications.

Treatment.—In a case of grip it is advisable to isolate the child affected from the other children in the family. Next to isolation the child must be put to bed and kept warm. It is advisable to give a mustard foot-bath to stimulate the circulation, and follow this up by keeping either a hot-water bag or bottles of hot water to the feet. If the head is very hot an ice-bag or cold, applied by ice-cold handkerchiefs to the head in the region of the fontanels, would be indicated. If high fever exists then 15 to 30 drops of sweet spirits of niter, repeated three times in intervals of one hour, will not only aid the kidneys, but also have a slight diaphoretic effect.

A favorite formula of mine is *tincture aconite rad.*, 1 drop, combined with *spiritus mindereri*, ½ teaspoonful, freshly prepared, and kept in a cool place. The above to be given every hour until the temperature is reduced or until perspiration appears.

The stomach and bowels require very careful attention in the gastric type of this disease; thus a good plan is to commence by giving a small tablet, containing $^1/_{10}$ grain of calomel, with a little water, every hour for six doses, or until the effect of the calomel is manifested by the greenish stools.

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[1] Archives of Pediatrics, January, 1902.

If the child is old enough then small pieces of cracked ice or ice cream may be given for several hours. If vomiting persists after the ice cream then nothing should be given by mouth for six hours.

During such time, when there is severe irritability, medication may be given, either in the form of rectal suppositories, or, if possible, by hypodermic means.

An ice-bag applied at the pit of the stomach will frequently arrest vomiting. An ether spray over the epigastrium for a minute will sometimes relieve a persistent vomiting.

Liquid food in a concentrated form, such as broths, soups and cereals, steak juice, raw beef juice, white of egg and water, or the yolk of an egg added to concentrated soup, is very nourishing if the stomach can retain the same. Calisaya is one of the best tonics. If the stomach is not irritable nitroglycerine, in doses of $^1/_{200}$ grain, will do good.

Strychnine, persistently given, is indicated in the course of convalescence just as it is indicated in diphtheria.

Peptonized foods, chiefly milk and peptonized broth, may be necessary if we are dealing with a prolonged gastric type of the disease with subnormal digestive power. When convalescence is established then syrup of hypophosphites, or phosphorus combined with codliver-oil, or the glycerophosphate of lime, will be found advantageous.

No matter how slight an attack of influenza has been encountered, it is well, when convalescence is permanently established, to insist on a change of air to the South, if in winter, to such places as Virginia Bay, Old Point Comfort, or Florida, or to Lakewood, or, better still, Atlantic City. If we have encountered a severe form of this disease with extreme emaciation and loss of tone, then a radical change of air to a more balmy and permanent climate, such as is found in southern California or in New Mexico, should be recommended.

If bronchial catarrh persists with expectoration, or if we are dealing with an incipient form of tuberculosis, following this attack of grip, then a change of air to Colorado, and out-door life, may be the means of arresting the disease and effecting a cure.

Alcoholic stimulation must depend on the individual case. If the infant assimilates milk, broth, cereals, and the pulse is good, then alcoholic stimulation is unnecessary. If, however, the pulse is weak and very little or no food is taken, then it may be necessary to give whisky, especially so if the pulse is feeble and the heart shows signs of weakness. Champagne may be given if persistent vomiting, with exhaustion and heart strain, manifests itself.

The value of coffee freshly made, to which some milk is added, must not be forgotten. Caffeine may be substituted if coffee is not at hand.

Carbonate of ammonia, in doses of 1 grain for a child 1 to 2 years old, repeated every two or three hours, will be useful as a stimulant during the course of extreme exhaustion following the respiratory type of this disease.

To stimulate the circulation if extreme cyanosis or cold extremities persist, nothing will equal judicious massage. Cupping or other forms of depletion should not be practised unless severe meningeal symptoms or constant convulsions demand the same. Dry cupping over the chest will be found useful to relieve the shortness of breath at the onset of pneumonia.

In cupping it is advisable to use two cups anteriorly and four cups posteriorly at the same time. The pulse should be watched, and if any irregularity presents itself then cupping should be immediately discontinued.

The depressing effects of the coal-tar products, such as antipyrine and phenacetine, should be remembered. If such drugs are used they must be combined with camphor or musk to counteract the depressing effect on the heart.

The fever is rarely so high that we must resort to antipyretic drugs. I have seen good results from sponging the body with alcohol and water, or with acetic ether, repeated every hour or every half-hour if necessary. If the temperature persists a cool pack should be applied to the upper half of the body. This pack should consist of a sheet wrung out of cool water. The temperature of the cool pack is 80° F. These packs should be repeated every fifteen minutes if the temperature is 105° F. or over, and every thirty minutes if the temperature is 103° or 104° F. The same treatment should be continued until the temperature falls to 102° F. or lower.

Iron may be necessary for months after an attack of influenza. One teaspoonful of Peptomangan (Gude) after each meal is indicated. The more simple forms of iron, such as neoferrum, are easily assimilated by a child. A preparation that the writer uses frequently is tinct. ferri acet. æth., in doses of 5 to 20 drops diluted with water, three times a day. This form of iron is easily digested, will restore tone to the system, and increase the red blood-corpuscles if continued for some time.

FOREIGN BODIES IN THE NOSE.

Children frequently while playing with beans, beads, shot, etc., stick them in the nose. If allowed to remain they frequently become encrusted with carbonate and phosphate of lime. Then it is known as a rhinolith. An angular forceps or a polypus forceps has frequently dislodged these foreign bodies. A nasal irrigation into the unobstructed nostril will sometimes assist in removing the foreign body.

TONSILLITIS (ANGINA CATARRHALIS).

This is an acute inflammatory lesion, undoubtedly due to the infection of the structures of the tonsil by micro-organisms which enter the lacunæ or lymph channels.

Bacteriology and Pathology.—The tonsils[1] are lymphoid structures closely resembling Peyer's patches of the small intestine. Various species of cocci and bacilli are to be found within the lacunæ, within the closed follicles, and even within the epithelial cells of tonsils removed during the acute stage.

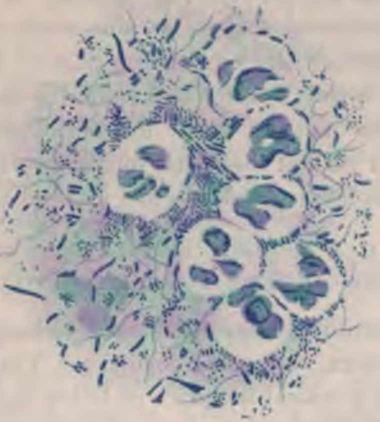

Fig. 123.—Angina Tonsillaris. Methylene-blue Staining. Zeiss Immersion I-12, Ocular 4. (After Jager, Klin. Microscopy.)

Leucocytes in large numbers are found associated with the microbes.

During the presence of inflammatory conditions, such as the presence of the contagium of diphtheria, desquamation of the epithelial covering takes place. This proliferation of the cells seen in diphtheria may entirely denude the tonsils of its epithelial covering in places. This will then permit any specific virus to be brought into contact with the lymphatics and then be carried into the general circulation. We see an acute inflammation of the tonsils in scarlet fever, in measles, and in diphtheria. It may also be seen in other infectious diseases, so also in acute inflammatory manifestations.

Symptoms.—One of the most frequent diseases of infancy and childhood is tonsillitis. When we are told that an infant has had a slight fever that passed off very quickly and has been attributed to "teething," tonsillitis among other diseases should be suspected.

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[1] Hodenpyl in the American Journal of Medical Science, March 1, 1891.

The onset is sudden. Fever is high. The temperature reaches 102° and may rise to 105° F. Vomiting frequently occurs. On the tonsils we find intense redness, and the lacunæ are covered with whitish or yellowish-white spots, which rarely coalesce but appear as yellowish dots.

Treatment.—Immediate relief to an inflamed tonsil can be given by a spray of 1 to 10,000 adrenalin chloride. Externally a hot flaxseed poultice, or in some cases with fever an ice collar, will render good service.

Internally 1-drop doses of tincture of aconite, repeated every hour for five or six doses, will reduce fever, promote diaphoresis, and frequently abort the condition. A dose of calomel, ½ grain, repeated every two or three hours until liquid stools are produced, is valuable. A steam atomizer containing a spray of beechwood creosote or pine-needle oil, to be used every two or three hours, loosens viscid secretions.

Food.—As there usually is pain on swallowing solid food, it is better to give small quantities of liquid food. Ice-cold chicken or calfsfoot jelly, ice cream, raw scraped pulp of meat, the yolk of raw eggs well beaten with sugar, buttermilk or zoolak, is nutritious and grateful to an inflamed throat.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF TONSILLITIS IN CHILDREN.

A diagnosis of tonsillitis or quinsy is usually thought to imply that we are dealing with a benign, easy-going condition. That the reverse is true is very apparent when a critical inquiry will follow the termination of each and every case. In a series of 12 cases of follicular tonsillitis taken at random as I saw them, the bacteriological diagnosis in 7 of these cases was diphtheria.

The frequency with which endocarditis and nephritis are seen implies that there may have been some antecedent disease from which pathogenic bacteria caused the valvular heart lesion, or possibly a nephritis.

FOLLICULAR TONSILLITIS, OR FOLLICULAR CATARRH.

Follicular catarrh is the most frequent form of inflammation of the tonsils.

Bacteriology.—The examination of the purulent plugs of follicular angina reveals:—

(a) Staphylococcus.
(b) Streptococcus.
(c) Pneumococcus.

Staphylococcus angina is a relatively harmless inflammatory lesion passing off without complications.

The streptococcus variety is a severer type of disease associated with fever and glandular enlargement. This disease is associated frequently with a general toxæmia and may be followed by nephritis or septicæmia.

The pneumococcus form is usually ushered in with a chill and sometimes runs a course similar to that of pneumonia. There is usually a redness and swelling of the tonsils, lacunar catarrh, and increased secretion, which agglutinates and shows itself at the follicular openings as yellowish-white spots.

The lymphatic glands at the angle of the jaw are sometimes enlarged and tender on palpation.

CROUPOUS TONSILLITIS.

This is a severer form of inflammation than the one above described. It involves the whole structure of the tonsil and most especially the crypts. The large quantity of fibrin which is poured out forms a distinct pseudomembrane. It is very difficult to differentiate this from diphtheria. A culture should be taken in all cases (see the "Diagnosis of Diphtheria").

We cannot differentiate this disease from true diphtheria clinically except by resorting to bacteriological cultures.

ULCERO-MEMBRANOUS TONSILLITIS.

This disease was first described by Vincent[1] who maintained that it was caused by a fusiform bacillus, although a spirillum was found associated with it.

Microscopically, there is a spindle-shaped bacillus along with spirilli. The bacillus does not stain with Gram. A clear culture is hard to obtain.

The pseudo-membranes, whitish or grayish in color, are easily detachable until the third day, when the ulcer forms. This ulcer corresponds to the portion of the tonsil occupied by the pseudo-membrane. Around its edges the mucous membrane is reddened. The accompanying symptoms are difficulty in swallowing, fever, anorexia, headache, and swelling of the submaxillary glands. The pseudo-membrane does not increase when this piece of membrane is detached. The ulcer heals.

It resembles croupous tonsillitis in its general appearance. It is often unilateral. The yellowish exudation seen on the tonsil greatly resembles diphtheria. It is a superficial necrosis, and when this tissue is wiped away with a swab bleeding occurs.

There are swollen lymph nodes at the angle of the jaw.

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[1] Arch. International de Laryngologie, 1898, No. 1.

This disease is a local process and rarely has constitutional symptoms accompanying it.

Prognosis.—The prognosis is excellent.

Treatment.—Gargle with bichloride, 1 to 2000, or with a weak solution of permanganate.

Locally, iodine, or 3 per cent. peroxide of hydrogen or 10 per cent. nitrate of silver solution, can be repeated in twelve hours if no improvement is noted.

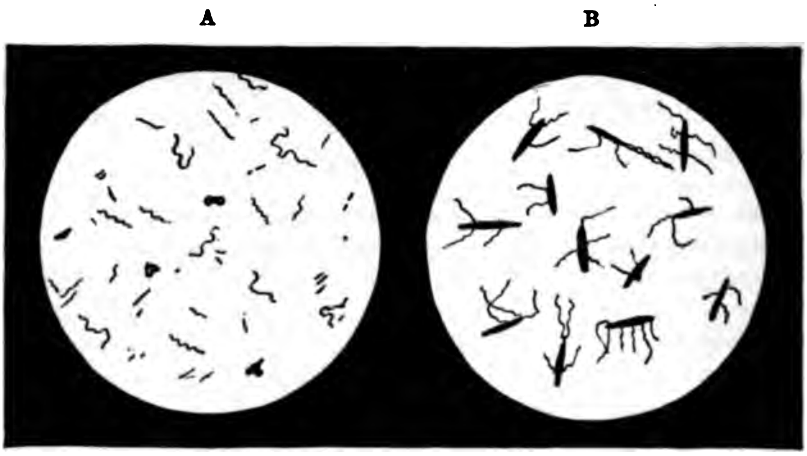

Fig. 124.—Vincent's Bacillus Found in Ulcerative Angina. A, Fusiform bacillus having a thickened center and tapering toward both ends. Also spindle-shaped bacilli. B, Fusiform bacillus having spores. (Original.)

PHLEGMONOUS TONSILLITIS (QUINSY: PERITONSILLAR ABSCESS).

This form of angina is usually caused by an invasion of the staphylococcus.

When the cellular tissue surrounding the tonsil is infected the inflammation may terminate in:—

(*a*) Resolution.

(*b*) Abscess.

It is one of the rarer forms of inflammatory conditions met with in children.

Symptoms.—The symptoms are similar to those of follicular tonsillitis. The temperature rises to 101° and 102° F. Sometimes as high as 105° F.

The child, if old enough, will complain of pain on swallowing, and at times it may be impossible to open the mouth. On examining the throat the inflammation can be seen. There is a marked congestion and œdema involving the tonsils, fauces, and uvula.

Holt reports a case of torticollis several days before the diagnosis of quinsy was established.

Treatment.—Aconite in 1-drop doses, repeated every one or two hours for the first day, will frequently abort the disease. Guaiacol carbonate given in 1- to 5- grain doses every three or four hours, has served me very well in some instances.

Local Treatment.—Local treatment consists in spraying the throat with a 1 to 2000 bichloride of mercury solution every two hours.

An ice-bag over the neck will sometimes relieve inflammation. The external application of leeches will relieve congestion. When fluctuation is felt the pus should be relieved by making a deep incision with a long, pointed bistoury.

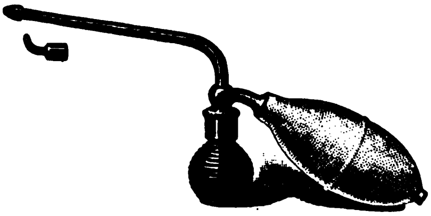

Fig. 125.—Throat Spray.

The Danger of Hæmorrhage.—Laryngologists, as a rule, advise great caution in operating in this region owing to the large number of blood-vessels located there.

After the incision is made the wound should be enlarged by inserting a polypus forceps or an artery clamp and separating the blades. By this means we can easily evacuate the pus and do not run the risk of bleeding. I am indebted to Dr. George F. Shrady for this valuable surgical hint.

Fig. 126.—Throat Ice-bag.

Chronic Hypertrophic Tonsillitis.

The chronic enlargement of the tonsils is due to recurring inflammatory attacks. This hypertrophy comes from a proliferation of the lymphoid tissue and an increase in the connective tissue stroma.

Etiology.—It is usually found in rachitic and subnormal children. Bad ventilation and improper hygiene are among the prime causes of this disease. In a series of several hundred children examined by me in one of my clinics for various diseases, 90 per cent. suffered with enlarged tonsils. All of these children lived in tenement houses, and we must associate the crowded, ill-ventilated apartments with the poisoned air inspired and its resulting throat disease.

Predisposing causes, such as rheumatism in the parents, have been given by some authors as causative factors.

Symptoms.—When we are told that an infant snores and breathes with its mouth open, then enlarged tonsils may be suspected as the cause. On the other hand an inspection of the post-nasal spaces should also be made to eliminate the presence of adenoids as the probable cause of the difficult respiration.

Deafness can rarely be attributed to enlarged tonsils. It is more often caused by the closure of the Eustachian tubes due to adenoids. The nasal tone of voice often accompanies enlarged tonsils.

Course.—Enlarged tonsils increase during childhood and remain permanently until puberty arrives, when they usually shrink in size without treatment.

The indications for the removal of chronic enlarged tonsils are:—

1. Where there are repeated attacks of tonsillitis.
2. Where there is inability to breathe sufficiently through the nose, with snoring, during sleep.
3. Nasal voice and deficient articulation.
4. Deafness and attacks of earache.
5. Tendency to pigeon-breast.

When any or all of the above conditions exist then a guarded opinion should be given until we ascertain whether or no the case is complicated by adenoids.

In the latter cases the removal of the tonsils will not suffice to cure the patient until the rhino-pharynx is treated for the removal of the adenoids.

There are few conditions met with in children which are more satisfactory from a therapeutic standpoint than the operation for tonsils and adenoids.

Dangers.—Desire[1] collected 20,000 tonsillotomies. In 9 cases bleeding took place. In none of these cases was it fatal, and in several it was not serious.

Lefferts[2] lays stress on the ascending pharyngeal artery as being one of the most, if not the most, prolific source of severe bleeding after tonsillotomy. It is important to inquire if *children suffer with hæmophilia* (bleeders); in such cases fatal hæmorrhage will frequently occur. I have also met with a case of congenital syphilis in which a serious hæmorrhage followed a tonsillotomy. This was evidently due to a syphilitic degeneration of the blood-vessels.

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[1] Sajous's Annual, 1891, vols. iv and v.

[2] Archives of Laryngology, vol. iii, p. 43.

The Operation.—The bistoury is rarely or never used for this operation. Some operators use a wire snare. In my experience the adjustment of a snare in an unruly child is so difficult and so much time is lost, that it is not practical. My preference has been for some form of tonsillotome. The Mackenzie type is a very good one. The Baginsky tonsillotome is one of the best. (See illustration Fig. 127.) It is simply a sharp-bladed guillotine and can be very easily adjusted.

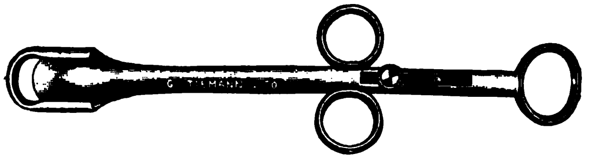

Fig. 127.—The Baginsky Tonsillotome.

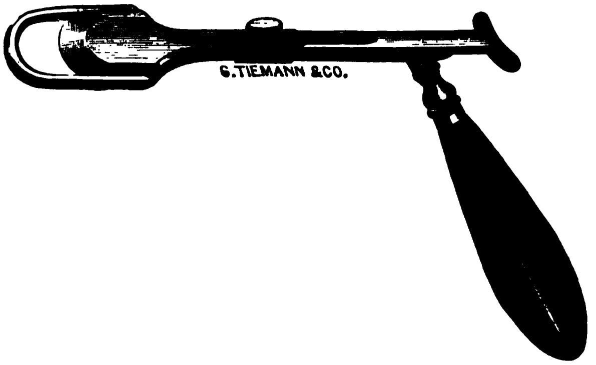

Fig. 128.—The Mackenzie Tonsillotome.

Hæmorrhage following the operation need not cause anxiety. When, however, hæmorrhage follows, then adrenalin chloride solution in full strength ($^1/_{1000}$) should be liberally used. It may be applied in the form of a spray or by means of a cotton pledget soaked with the solution. The galvano-cautery or the local application of peroxide of hydrogen is frequently useful. In older children small pieces of cracked ice or ice cream will control bleeding.

The Use of an Anæsthetic.[1]—The local application of a 10 per cent. cocaine solution has been recommended by a great many authors. I have used cocaine in children and have seen very bad constitutional effects, such as severe cardiac depression, nausea, and frequently vomiting, following its use. I prefer 4 per cent. novocaine solution.

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[1] Read chapter on "Anæsthesia in Children," page 885.

Spraying the tonsils with ethyl chloride for several seconds produces local anæsthesia. It is very valuable with sensitive children. In some instances a few whiffs of chloroform are necessary to have the child completely under control.

Chloroform is very rapid, but it must be cautiously given.

It is advisable to operate before feeding, so that in the event of vomiting food should not be expelled.

It is advisable to thoroughly swab the mouth, pharynx, and tonsils with an antiseptic solution before the operation. For this purpose use:—

Table salt	1 drachm
Sterile water	5 ounces

Or Dobell's solution.

Apply with a cotton swab.

Normally pathogenic bacteria abound in the mouth and post-nasal spaces. After a tonsillotomy a white croupous deposit resembling diphtheria will be seen. This should not be considered a diphtheritic infection unless the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus can be demonstrated.

Owing to the raw surfaces following a tonsillotomy the greatest care must be used to isolate the patient from infectious diseases. Scarlet fever and diphtheria will gain access much easier soon after this operation is performed.

Tuberculosis of the Tonsils.

Schlesinger states (*Forts. der Med. Pediatrics*) that "up to the present time the parallelism between advanced tuberculosis of the lungs and tuberculosis of the tonsils, as also that between mild or passed tuberculous processes of the lungs, with the escape of the tonsils, has only been demonstrated in the case of adults, but has not been observed in children. He was able to confirm this parallelism also in children, having found 12 cases of tuberculosis of the tonsils in 13 of florid tuberculosis of the lungs. The diagnosis of tonsillar tuberculosis is hardly possible microscopically, for the reason that tubercular ulcerations are only found very rarely on their surface; neither were the tonsils hypertrophied without exception, but were found pale and firm in nearly two-thirds of the cases. In 9 cases examined for the purpose, the tonsils were found to be affected bilaterally, although not with equal intensity. As to the relation between tuberculosis of the lymphatic glands of the neck and that of the tonsils, in 9 cases the author found that the tonsils were healthy in 2. He inclines, therefore, to the view that a primary tonsillar tuberculosis is not to be taken for granted in all cases; but we must take into account the possibility of their infection by cheesy cervical glands, by means of the return flow of lymph. The author finds some support for this view from the fact that in these cases the recent tubercles are situated at the base of the tonsils away from the crypts."

L. Kingsford[1] examined the tonsils removed post-mortem from 17 children, varying in age from 4 months to 9 years. All showed cervical glandular enlargement, and in 11 it was obviously tuberculous. Of the 17, tonsillar deposits were found in 7, but only 3 exhibited any naked-eye tuberculous changes. Of these 3, 1 showed ulceration, a second scarring, and a third a sebaceous focus. Practically all the 17 were cases of secondary infection from either blood or sputum. The parts of the tonsils which were the seats of the lesions were usually the lymphoid follicles not far from the epithelial surface, but it is not possible to trace bacilli in from the crypts or surface of the organs. The author believes it possible that infection may work through healthy tonsils to the cervical glands, the former becoming infected at a later period.

Tuberculous tonsillitis is a very rare affection. The tonsils are rarely if ever the site of primary inoculation in pulmonary tuberculosis.

ADENOID VEGETATIONS.[2]

Adenoid vegetations consist of a hypertrophy of the adenoid tissue which exists normally in the naso-pharynx.

Pathology.—In a less severe form the growth may be confined to the roof of the naso-pharyngeal cavity. In severe forms the vegetations are very numerous, irregular in shape, and extend from the roof of the cavity to the lateral walls. They grow from the fossa of Rosenmuller. They frequently cover the orifices of the Eustachian tubes. There are frequently, according to Hall, between the enlarged pharyngeal and faucial tonsils, and sometimes the adenoid tissue at the base of the tongue, the so-called lingual tonsil.

The difference between vegetations and an enlarged tonsil is that the tonsil has a great amount of connective tissue due to the irritation produced by the passage of food, whereas the vegetations by their situation are protected from these injurious influences.

Symptoms.—The "adenoid habitus," the pinched expression of the nose and the long drawn face, are very typical. There is frequently lateral narrowing of the alveolar arch and prominence of the upper incisor teeth. Owing to the interference of respiration the mouth is kept open. The lips are swollen and thick.

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[1] The Lancet, January 9, 1904.

[2] For "Congenital Adenoids," see clinical history on page 59.

Spicer has directed attention[1] to the distention of the transverse nasal veins as one of the indications of the presence of adenoids.

Deafness.—Deafness is frequently caused by the presence of adenoids. The amount of interference caused by the adenoids will depend on the relation of the Eustachian tube orifice to the vault of the pharynx. If the orifice be situated high up, a small amount of growth will occlude it and cause auditory trouble. When the orifice is situated low down there may be extensive vegetations without the Eustachian tube being implicated.[2] The voice has a muffled sound with a nasal twang. The letters m, n, and ng cannot be pronounced. Stuttering or stammering can frequently be cured if vegetations are removed; the explanation being that the spasmodic actions of the muscles of the throat are due to reflex irritation. Earache frequently accompanies adenoids.

Bed wetting is usually associated with adenoids. Among several hundred children examined in the children's service of a large dispensary, it was rare to find a case of enuresis that was not associated with adenoid vegetation.

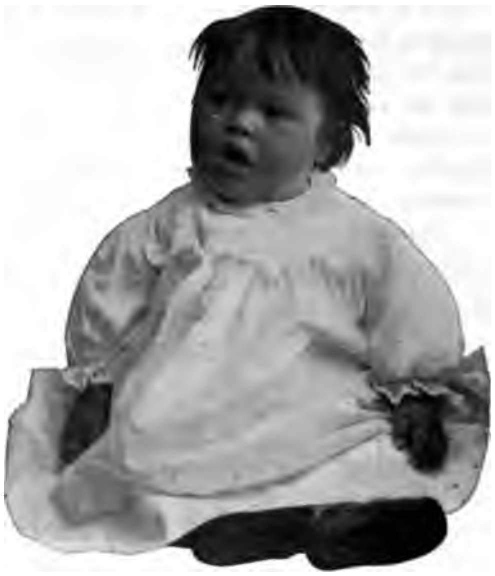

Fig. 120.—Typical Adenoid Face in a Cretin. (Original.)

Diagnosis.- The mouth breathing, the snoring at night, the adenoid face, are in themselves sufficient to establish a diagnosis. *To examine the rhino-pharynx for the presence of adenoids,* have the nurse seated with the child on her lap, firmly pinning the child's feet between her knees. While the right hand confines the child's arms, the left hand is used to support the head. The physician should then separate the jaws with the aid of a mouth gag and explore the post-nasal space with his index finger. In the absence of a gag a clean cork or the handle of a spoon protected by gauze can be used to separate the jaws.

If the child is very unruly it is wiser to pin a sheet securely across the arms and examine in the dorsal position.

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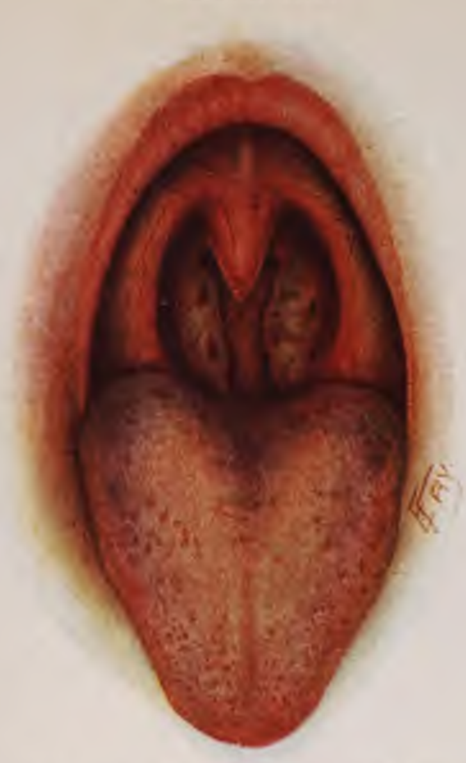
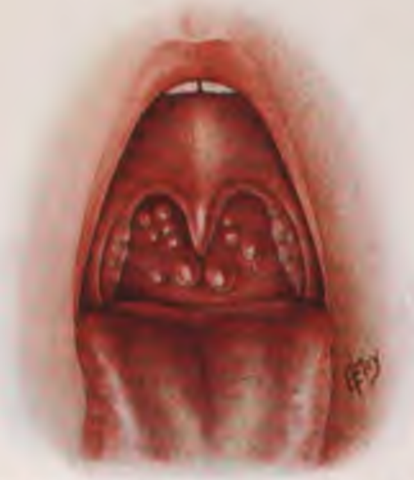
[1] British Medical Journal, 1887, p. 459.

[2] Sajous's Annual, 1888, vol. iii, p. 278.

PLATE XIX



Chronic Enlarged Tonsils and Associated Congested Throat, very frequently seen. (Original.)



A case of Granular Pharyngitis. Large masses could be palpated in the rhino-pharynx. (Original.)

The physician can best make the examination by standing directly behind the child.

In making a diagnosis of adenoids in infants we must naturally depend to a great extent upon the inability to nurse properly and noisy mouth breathing. However many other cases of noisy mouth breathing should be excluded. These briefly mentioned are:—

1. Congenital, as:—
    - Diminution in size or occlusion of one or both nostrils.
    - Highly arched palate or deformity of soft palate.
    - Distortion of cervical vertebræ.
    - Atelectasis.
2. Constitutional, as: —
    - Syphilis.
    - Lymphatism.
    - Tuberculosis.
    - Lithæmia.
3. Other conditions, such as:—
    - Acute rhinitis.
    - Rectopharyngeal abscess.
    - Disturbances of digestion.
    - Paralysis of soft palate or pharynx.
    - Diphtheria, especially nasal.

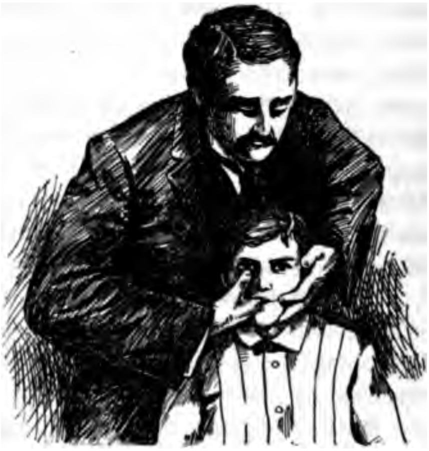


Fig. 130.—Digital Method of Exploring the Rhino-pharynx for Adenoids. (Original.)

These have to be carefully considered. These conditions may exist with adenoids, but when alone may cause symptoms similar to those occasioned by the presence of the hypertrophied tissue, so an operation may not result in the promised cure. In infants the examining finger, on account of its size, is out of the question, and the rhinoscopic mirror cannot be employed. To be absolutely certain the curette must establish the diagnosis.

Prognosis.—The disorders arising from the presence of adenoids are: Repeated attacks of coryza, chronic rhinitis, arrest of nasal development, nasal stenosis, and mouth breathing, with the associated mental listlessness. There is a tendency to bronchitis, to spasmodic croup and asthma. Children with adenoids usually have very poor appetites. There is an associated

Retropharyngeal Abscess (Retropharyngeal Lymph Adenitis).

This condition may be due to mechanical irritation or to direct infection. The most common forms met with in children are evidently due to:—

1. Local infection.

2. Abscess caused by a tubercular infection or where caries of the cervical vertebræ exists. This latter condition we meet in older children. It is usually a sequel to the specific infections, and may follow scarlet fever, measles, or diphtheria. It is most frequently associated with influenza and tuberculosis. Rachitic and syphilitic children are predisposed to this disease. Catarrhal affections of the upper air passages also invite this disease.

Pathology.—The retropharyngeal lymph nodes are described (Simon) as forming a chain on each side of the median line between the pharyngeal and prevertebral muscles; these undergo atrophy after the third year. Sometimes adenoids will cause a swelling of the glands, giving rise to fever, but they will not suppurate. At other times the swelling of the retropharyngeal lymph nodes will be associated with external cervical adenitis. It is important to recognize this condition owing to the serious nature of the disease.

Symptoms.—This affection usually develops very suddenly; the infant will refuse the breast or have trouble in swallowing. The food is most commonly regurgitated through the nose. Such infants will have labored mouth breathing. The head is thrown back, there is severe dyspnœa, occasionally asphyxia—laryngeal stenosis due to pressure of the abscess on the larynx, interfering with respiration. There is a peculiar snoring sound. With the index finger in the throat the soft fluctuating tumor can be felt. On examining the throat with a good light the bulging of the pharyngeal wall will be noticed.

The temperature will range from 102° to 103° F., sometimes higher.

Diagnosis.—The diagnosis should be made with the finger, by a careful palpation of the post-nasal and pharyngeal spaces. Mouth breathing due to adenoids will not cause sudden symptoms of suffocation. The suddenness of interference with respiration points to the development of an abscess. The following cases will illustrate this condition:—

CASE I.—An infant about fifteen months old was brought to my office by Dr. J. Martinson. The history was loss of appetite, regurgitating of food through the nostrils, mouth breathing, and bulging of the pharyngeal wall. Temperature, 101° F. Cervical glands enlarged. The diagnosis of retropharyngeal abscess was made. An incision made in the abscess liberated the pus. The abscess cavity was cleansed with a 1 to 2000 bichloride solution. The child recovered.

CASE II. A nursing infant, less than 1 year old, seen with Dr. J. Brandeis, suffered with retropharyngeal abscess. The treatment consisted in hot fomentations. When fluctuation was detected, an incision was made with a curved bistoury; the lower half of the blade was protected with cotton. After the incision the wound

was enlarged by introducing and separating the blades of a polypus forceps. The child recovered.

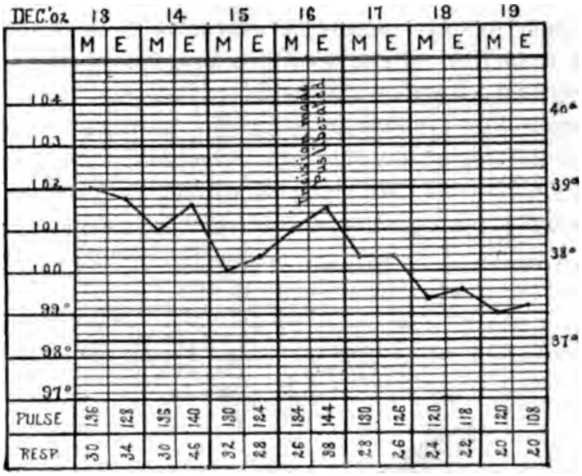


Fig. 131.—Temperature Chart from a Case of Retropharyngeal Abscess. (Original.)

Treatment.—Some children require local applications. Antiphlogistine is a convenient local application until suppuration is established. Flaxseed poultices are sometimes well borne.

No time should be lost if pus is present. The abscess cavity should be opened and the pus liberated. To prevent the pus flowing into the trachea, it is best to keep the head well forward. The use of a gag is not necessary if the tongue is depressed and the incision made with a small-bladed knife similar to a tenotome. After the pus is evacuated the parts should be cleansed with a 1 per cent. carbolic solution or a 1 to 2000 bichloride solution, and the wound treated on general aseptic principles. Restorative treatment will consist in giving codliver-oil, hypophosphites, and last, but not least, food and fresh air.

SPASMODIC LARYNGITIS (CATARRHAL CROUP: SPASMODIC CROUP).

This form of acute catarrhal spasm was first described by Goodhart. The disease is simply an acute catarrhal inflammation associated with a severe spasm of the larynx. Infants under six months of age are rarely affected, and until 5 years the disease is most common. It occurs as frequently in well-nourished as in frail rachitic children.

Catarrhal or spasmodic croup is frequently the result of hypersecretion in the naso-pharynx. When *croup appears suddenly it should not be feared,* especially so if the child was well during the day. It simply results from post-nasal secretions accumulating while the child lies on its back. Such

℞ Balsam of Peru	½ drachm
Oil of eucalyptus	½ drachm

M. Sig.: Dissolve in 2 drachms of alcohol. A teaspoonful into a pint of boiling water, to be used in the form of a spray, by means of a steam atomiser. (Fig. 136.)

When a tubercular condition is suspected, creosote may be added to the steam spray with marked benefit.

Intralaryngeal injections in the treatment of diseases in the bronchi and larynx have been used many years.

As early as 1852 Thompson described a glass and silver syringe for this purpose. The injection was made through the glottis into the cavity of the larynx and not injected under the mucous membrane. This injected fluid passes into the larynx and trachea, and readily enters the larger bronchi.

Local applications of iodine and glycerine are frequently valuable:—

℞ Iodine	3 grains
Glycerine	1 ounce
Kali iodid	5 grains

M. Sig.: Apply with a cotton swab, on larynx. Once daily.

When this catarrh persists, a single application of the following will frequently abort an acute attack:—

℞ Argenti nitrici	10 grains
Aquæ destillatæ	1 ounce

M. Sig.: Apply cautiously over the larynx.

Emetics.—The most rapid method of relieving catarrhal accumulations is in giving an emetic. The choice of the same depends on individual experience. A safe and harmless emetic, quite rapid in action, is a teaspoonful of syrup of ipecac. The same dose may be repeated in half an hour if not effectual. Syr. scillæ comp., commonly known as Cox's hive syrup, in teaspoonful doses, is also a mild drug, producing emesis. Mustard water and sulphate of zinc are also useful. Tartar emetic in $^{1}/_{10}$-grain doses, gradually increased, is valuable. My favorite emetic is sulphate of copper, 1-grain doses, with 1½ ounce or less of water. This usually produces an instantaneous effect.

When children are obstinate and will not swallow, a $^{1}/_{50}$-grain or $^{1}/_{25}$-grain tablet of apomorphia, given hypodermically, may be repeated in ten or fifteen minutes if necessary. This is a convenient and rapid means of producing emesis. Emesis should not be repeated oftener than once in twenty-four hours, and then always with due regard to the condition of a child.

Inhalations of steam impregnated with turpentine or pine-needle oil have served me very well. For producing this steam a croup kettle or a steam atomizer may be used.

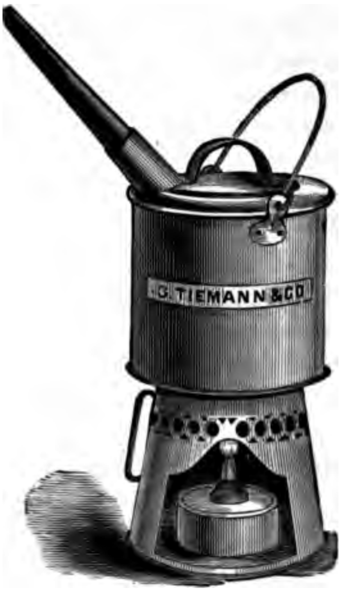


Fig. 134.—Croup Kettle.

The steam loosens the viscid secretion and can be used every hour or less often, depending on the urgency of the case.

FOREIGN BODIES IN THE LARYNX.

Foreign bodies such as fish-bones or particles of food are occasionally aspirated into the larynx, causing coughing and irritation. In some cases laryngeal stenosis and symptoms of asphyxia result. No time should be lost in commencing treatment, owing to the danger of suffocation.

The hypodermic injection of apomorphia ($^1/_{50}$ grain) until emesis is produced, or syrup of ipecac, several teaspoonfuls given by mouth, will occasionally dislodge the foreign body. If this is not successful a laryngologist should be sent for. A physician who is inexperienced with the larynx should refrain from prolonged attempts to dislodge the foreign body, as in most cases only harm can result therefrom. If asphyxia threatens, tracheotomy should be performed. Those experienced with intubation should first try the effects of the large caliber tube known as the foreign-body tube (see chapter on "Intubation").

COUGHS OF REFLEX ORIGIN.

NIGHT COUGH.

A very troublesome form of cough is frequently heard at night. The history given is that the child is quite well during the day, but has a distressing cough at night.

The position of the child on its back permits naso-pharyngeal accumulations to stagnate; hence, this cough occurs when the child is on its back. Very young children do not expectorate, nor can they clean the nose.

Diagnosis.—A history of cough at night only points to naso-pharyngeal disease. As a rule adenoids and chronic tonsillitis or pharyngitis should be suspected. The absence of fever and the freedom from cough during the day indicate a local catarrh which gravitates when the child is on its back.

Treatment.—If adenoids are present they should be removed. Naso-pharyngeal catarrh should be treated by local applications of ½ per cent. of iodine and glycerine solution. The naso-pharynx should be washed by means of a douche every morning and evening. A weak solution of boracic acid or bicarbonate of soda is very serviceable. In persistent catarrh codliver-oil should be given.

SPASMODIC COUGH (PSEUDO-PERTUSSIS).

I have previously described a cough which occurs in children having catarrh of the upper air passages; sometimes this night cough is paroxysmal in character and the spasm resembles whooping-cough.

Cause.—The accumulation of the mucus in the region of the arytænoids and the vocal cords sets up a spasm of the glottis, resulting in attacks of suffocation.

Symptoms.—A hoarse or barking cough, appearing in spasms with an interval of rest, is usually heard. The cough is frequently followed by vomiting. The temperature is rarely above normal.

Diagnosis.—The absence of the cough by day and the appearance of the cough in spasms when the infant is placed on its back always point to a local throat condition of a non-inflammatory character.

Treatment.—Remove the cause if any is apparent. Locally, astringents are indicated. Restorative treatment, consisting of iron and Fowler's solution, will sometimes permanently benefit the child.

USELESS COUGH.

Thompson and MacCoy, of Philadelphia; Francis Warner, of London, and Emil Mayer, of New York, describe an irritating hacking cough in children. Such children do not suffer with fever, but have a poor appetite, are thin and irritable. Warner studied a series of 22,000 children in schools, and he attributes this condition not to peripheral irritation, intestinal worms, nor to any disease of the tonsils or pharynx, but to unbalanced central nerve action.

REFLEX COUGH.

In post-nasal catarrh we frequently have a profuse discharge which, by irritating the pharynx, causes a cough. This cough frequently resembles that of an acute bronchitis. The examination of the lungs in such cases is usually negative. It is therefore advisable to examine the nose and throat in every case of cough.

CHAPTER II.

DISEASES OF THE BRONCHI, LUNGS, AND PLEURA.

THE LUNGS.[1]

The lungs in children occupy the same position as in adult life. The trachea of the young child is larger in comparison than in the adult; so also the bronchi are larger than in the adult. They occupy more space and are more numerous than in the adult, but the air-cells are much smaller. I have described in detail the method of examination of the thorax in the article on "The Respiration in the New-born Baby."

THE DIAPHRAGM.

The diaphragm occupies a higher position in children than in adults. Dwight studied a series of frozen sections and found the diaphragm in the infant corresponding to the eighth and ninth dorsal vertebræ.

POINTS TO BE NOTED IN THE DIAGNOSIS OF DISEASES OF THE LUNGS.

AUSCULTATION.

Acute catarrhal bronchitis: Sibilant and sonorous râles. Large and small bubbling râles.

Capillary bronchitis: Sibilant, subcrepitant râles.

Asthma: Sibilant, wheezing, sonorous breathing.

Emphysema: Respirations diminished, absent, or prolonged. Low-pitched expiration.

Œdema: Bilateral, subcrepitant râles.

Pneumonia: (1) Crepitant râles; (2) bronchial breathing and bronchophony; (3) broncho-vesicular breathing, crepitant, subcrepitant, and bubbling râles.

Pleurisy: Friction sound with each respiratory act, best heard with inspiration. If the child controls the movements of the lung and keeps the pleural surfaces apart, then no friction sound is heard.

Subacute pleurisy: Friction, absence of vesicular murmur, and vocal resonance.

Fluid and air in pleural sac: Respiratory murmur absent, amphoric breathing above, all sound absent below, splashing râles.

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[1] Acute tuberculosis, tubercular pneumonia, and lobar pneumonia are described in Part VII, in the "Acute Infectious Diseases."

Tuberculosis: Long, high-pitched expiration, breathing feeble, vocal resonance increased, adventitious râles, later bronchial breathing, bronchophony.

Tuberculosis, second stage: Cavernous breathing, amphoric breathing, gurgles, metallic echo.

PERCUSSION RESONANCE.

Vesicular: Uncomplicated lung.
Dullness: Lung with increased proportion of solids.
Flatness: Solids, fluids.
Tympanitic: Large body of air.
Vesiculo-tympanitic: Lung with increased proportion of air.
Amphoric: Empty cavity with tense walls.
Cracked-pot: Cavity with flaccid walls.

RHYTHM.

Normal rhythm: Regular succession of the respiratory acts.
Interrupted rhythm: Slight deposit in lung.
Divided rhythm: Want of elasticity in lung.
Prolonged expiration: Want of elasticity in lung.

BREATHING.

Vesicular: Uncomplicated lung.
Bronchial: Consolidated lung; compressed lung.
Broncho-vesicular: Moderate consolidation, moderate compression.
Cavernous: Flaccid cavity-walls.
Amphoric: Tense cavity-walls.
Exaggerated: Vicarious respiration.
Diminished: Plastic exudation, want of elasticity.
Absent: Fluid, air.

VOCAL RESONANCE.

Normal: Voice through normal chest.
Bronchophony: Voice through consolidation.
Amphoric: Voice in a cavity.
Ægophony: Voice in compressed lung.
Pectoriloquy: Articulate voice in cavity; in consolidation.
Whispering pectoriloquy: Whispered articulation in cavity; in consolidation.
Cavernous whisper: Ill-defined articulation in cavity.

BRONCHITIS (BRONCHIAL CATARRH; ACUTE BRONCHITIS).

Bronchitis, commonly known as bronchial catarrh, is one of the most frequent diseases of infancy and childhood. It frequently follows nasal catarrh, pharyngeal catarrh, or catarrh extending from the trachea.

Etiology.—There are certain predisposing factors which favor the development of this disease. Children with deficient nutrition, suffering with anæmia, and those with a weakened framework having rickets, are more susceptible to this disease. Children affected with catarrh of the upper air passages frequently invite an extension of this inflammatory process.

Bacteriology.—The pathogenic bacteria found in the bronchi are staphylococci, streptococci, colon bacilli, and diphtheria bacilli. The bacteria most frequently seen are the diplococci of pneumonia and streptococci; in addition to these the bacillus of influenza frequently gives rise to bronchitis. Other germs found were bacillus pyocyaneus and encapsulated bacilli. Ritchie[1] states that the above micro-organisms were rarely found alone, but always associated. He does not believe that a definite germ is the causative agent. These same micro-organisms under different conditions frequently enter the alveoli and produce pneumonia.

Pathology.—The anatomical changes noted in bronchitis are the same, irrespective of the cause. The disease may be limited to the large bronchial tubes or may extend into the finest ramifications. This tendency to extend into the capillaries is greater in children and still more so in infants. The accumulation of the catarrhal products in the smaller tubes adds a gravity of its own to the situation. It is well to emphasize this peculiar tendency of the trouble in those of tender age.[2]

On making a cross-section of the lung a muco-purulent discharge oozes from the bronchi. The same thick purulent matter can be forced out of the smaller tubes when compressing the lung between the fingers. The microscopic examination shows intense congestion of the superficial blood-vessels. Frequently there is a serous infiltration of the bronchial mucous membrane.

When the infection extends into the smallest bronchi it is called "capillary bronchitis." Williams calls it "suffocative," owing to the severe symptoms which develop.

Capillary bronchitis is always accompanied by some alveolar catarrh and frequently passes on to a distinct broncho-pneumonia. Infectious secretions in the larger bronchi are sometimes sucked into the smaller bronchi and frequently cause an inflammation of the lobule. A plug of mucus frequently acts as a valve in a bronchus, permitting some air to escape during expiration and preventing the entrance of air during inspiration.

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[1] Journal of Pathology and Bacteriology, 1900, vii, 1-21.

[2] Christopher: Article on "Bronchitis," "American Text-Book on Diseases of Children."

When all the air is expelled the lobule may collapse. This condition is known as atelectasis pulmonum. This condition is favored when the thorough expansion of the air tubes is interfered with. It is also favored by congestion, thickening of the mucous membrane, and the gummy secretions produced by bronchitis.

It, moreover, accompanies those cases in which the position is not frequently changed. It is seen in rachitic deformities of the thorax. The most frequent place for this condition is at the border of the lungs. The collapsed area is of a dark-red or purple color and shows a uniform red surface on section. It sinks in water, but can be insufflated unless inflammation has already begun (Williams).

Rachford has shown that disease of the lymphatic system is a factor in producing malnutrition in children. In children having the latter condition we must not be surprised if we have a persistent bronchial catarrh baffling the ordinary method of treatment.

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—The symptoms vary with the severity of the disease. In mild cases the temperature rises to about 101° F. at night; in severer cases the temperature will reach 102° and even 103° F. The respirations are quickened and labored and the pulse is accelerated. When the temperature is subnormal in rachitic children, then such low temperature should be looked upon as a grave symptom. On auscultation sibilant râles are heard anteriorly, but more prominent posteriorly.

As the secretion from the mucous membrane begins, the sibili give place to loose mucous râles. Graves's point is worth noting, that "the more numerous the sounds heard at any one point to which the stethoscope is applied, the smaller the bronchi involved."

Much stress should not be laid on the sputum or the character of the expectoration. Children under 5 years rarely or never expectorate. The pulmonic resonance is usually normal. If the attack is a mild one, as the above-named symptoms would seem to indicate, then the symptoms will subside under palliative treatment. The greatest attention should be bestowed on the pulse.

A pulse-rate between 120 and 130 in a young child should be looked upon favorably. If the pulse is suddenly accelerated and reaches 140 to 160 and the respirations are increased to 60 or 80 per minute, then a broncho-pneumonia should be suspected. Bear in mind that the *normal ratio of respiration to pulse is about 1 to 4;* when this is disturbed so that the ratio is 1 to 2, or even 1 to 3, we should suspect pneumonia.

Prognosis.—This varies according to the severity of the symptoms and the condition of the infant before it was taken sick. Children having a cachectic condition or those having syphilis will certainly have a severer type of infection than children not so affected. In subnormal conditions bronchitis will frequently leave some traces, so that a "chronic bronchitis" is established.

Treatment.—*Hygienic Treatment:* A child with bronchitis must be put to bed in a room having a temperature of 68° to 72° F. The air should be kept free from dust. The room must be properly ventilated. The patient should be given as much sunshine as possible. Dark, ill-ventilated rooms will aggravate this condition. The body should be warmly clad—not too warm. Flannels should be worn next to the skin. A lukewarm sponge bath followed by friction with a coarse towel will stimulate the circulation and is very grateful to the child. If the child has a high temperature then a mustard foot bath should be ordered.

Dietetic Treatment.—If the child takes a large amount of nourishment and assimilates the same, then the chances of restoring health are excellent. To rely on drugs and exclude food is to discard the most important part of the treatment. When the child refuses food by mouth, then rectal feeding should be resorted to, so that the body is sufficiently nourished. It is a good plan to predigest milk for feeble infants; hence peptonized milk or whey and soups and broths should not be forgotten. The yolk of an egg beaten up with sherry wine for a child several years old will be found a convenient method for giving nourishment with stimulation. Water is very important in the treatment of this disease, especially so when there is a large amount of expectoration.

Medicinal Treatment.—If the temperature is over 102° F., 1-drop doses of tincture of aconite, given every two hours, will be useful to reduce the fever. All children who cough swallow their mucus; hence a laxative or an emetic will be very serviceable. A teaspoonful of castor-oil, repeated in six hours, is very valuable. As an emetic a teaspoonful of syrup of ipecac, repeated in fifteen or twenty minutes if necessary, can be tried. When rapid emesis is desired, 1 grain of sulphate of copper dissolved in a teaspoonful of water will be very effective. This dose should not be repeated more than once in two or three hours. Apomorphin in doses of $^1/_{100}$ grain, hypodermically, is a very effective emetic. This is indicated when the child refuses to take medicine.

When the secretion is very viscid then steam inhalations will be very serviceable. The steam atomizer will be found very valuable in young children who cannot be held over moist vapor. Steam impregnated with beechwood creosote will be found a valuable means of loosening adherent mucus. It has a decided therapeutic effect. It is a powerful antiseptic.

Restorative Treatment.—Restorative treatment, such as using an emulsion of codliver-oil or a malt extract, with or without iron, should not be omitted.

BRONCHIAL ASTHMA (HAY FEVER).

This is frequently called spasmodic asthma, owing to the spasmodic or paroxysmal dyspnœa associated with wheezing respiration. A peculiarity of this condition is that children appear to be perfectly well during the interval. This is frequently an anaphylactic phenomena.

Etiology.—Children having neurotic tendencies or those children of gouty families seem to be predisposed to this affection. Most writers on this subject believe that this condition is a vasomotor neurosis resulting from disturbed innervation of the pneumo-gastric or its ramifications, or the vasomotor nerves, causing a spasm of the muscles of the air passages. Hay fever is an affection which closely resembles bronchial asthma and alternates with it.

Exciting causes are many; for example, enlarged bronchial glands, enlarged tonsils, adenoids, elongated uvula, and hypertrophied turbinates. The inhalation of irritants, such as dust, may irritate and provoke a spasm. Not infrequently we find eczema existing at the same time or alternating with attacks of asthma.

Gastro-intestinal disturbances are among the most frequent causes of asthmatic attacks.

Pathology.—This is not known. Talma says: "The attacks are due to a spasm of the larynx, rarely to a spasm of the constrictors of the glottis, and that it is partly under voluntary control." Various theories are offered. One, that the attack is due to a swelling of the bronchial mucous membrane or to a catarrh of the bronchioles, or possibly to a spasm of the bronchial muscles.

Symptoms.—Without warning, a spasm or shortening of breath comes on, most frequently at night. There is usually such oppression and distressed breathing that the child must sit up. Frequently the distress is so great that the child will grasp any object within reach. The shoulders are elevated and the head thrown back so that the accessory muscles of respiration are brought into play. The face assumes an anxious expression, and later becomes cyanotic. The eyes are prominent and the alæ nasi widely dilated. A cold, clammy perspiration is usually present. The respirations are loud and wheezing, and are rarely increased in number. The inspiration is jerky, the expiration prolonged and laborious. There is very little or no thoracic expansion. The pulse is small and rapid. There is no fever, but we frequently have a subnormal temperature when the attack is prolonged. The extremities are frequently cold. After the attack there is exhaustion followed by sleep. An attack may last several hours, sometimes days. Percussion of the chest during the paroxysm shows *hyperresonance*. There may be either diminution or prolongation of the vesicular murmur. The whole chest has sibilant and sonorous râles and wheezing sounds.

The diagnosis is easy; we must exclude spasm of the glottis, croup, tracheal stenosis, and neoplasm in the larynx. The absence of fever will easily differentiate this condition from inflammatory respiratory diseases.

The prognosis is usually good, especially so at the time of puberty. After an attack a careful examination of the lungs, the kidneys, the nose, and the throat should be made, and the exciting cause, if possible, should be noted.

Treatment.—Fresh air to thoroughly oxygenate the lungs will afford relief. Do not use steam or heat of any kind. The application of two or three dry cups over the front and also over the back of the chest repeated every six hours will relieve the spasm. Surprising relief will be afforded by washing the colon with ½ teaspoonful of powdered ox gall in 1 pint of water. The latter will not only empty the colon of fæces and gas, but will also relieve the mechanical pressure on the diaphragm. The bowels should be kept loose by giving salines. Iodide of sodium in 1- to 5- grain doses should be given at least one month after the acute paroxysmal attacks have subsided. Codein, $^1/_5$ grain for a child 5 years old, repeated every two hours, or Dover's powder, 1- to 2- grain doses, repeated every three hours until relief is afforded. Chloral hydrate with or without bromide of sodium in doses of 3 to 5 grains once only should be given at night to promote sleep and as an antispasmodic.

The diet should consist of milk, thin soups, and fruit juices. All starchy foods, such as potatoes, bread, and cereals, should be omitted. During convalescence, fruit, vegetables, eggs, fish, and meat may be given.

Broncho-pneumonia (Catarrhal Pneumonia or Lobular Pneumonia).

This disease derives its name from the fact that it usually exists as an inflammatory condition affecting small areas of the alveoli of the lung. Contrary to lobar pneumonia, this catarrhal form does not terminate by a distinct crisis. This disease is usually a sequela to or a complication of whooping-cough, measles, diphtheria, or typhoid fever. It is this form which is most dreaded in diphtheria and which rarely ends favorably. It does not occur in distinct cycles, nor does it run a distinct course. One child may suffer with a broncho-pneumonia extending over ten days or two weeks. Another child with the same form and severity of the disease may suffer from eight to ten weeks. Thus this disease may be considered to be of a distinct wandering type. This disease does not depend on seasonal changes, although the greatest number of cases are met with in the spring and fall.

Etiology.—By far the greatest number of catarrhal pneumonias may be found in those children offering the least resistance. Such cases are usually found in scrofulous, tuberculous, rachitic, and syphilitic children. When children have previously suffered from infections such as diphtheria, scarlet fever, measles, or typhoid fever, they are peculiarly predisposed to this secondary infection. It is for this latter reason that this disease is so fatal. In a series of fatal cases accompanying the various types of diphtheria seen by me at the Willard Parker Hospital, the large bulk succumbed to this complication. This is due in a great measure to the devitalized condition of the body after a toxæmic infection, such as is found in diphtheria. Whether or not this disease is contagious has not been definitely settled.

Bacteriology.—We know that various forms of germs, such as the staphylococcus, streptococcus, the diplococcus pneumonia (Friedlander), the diplococcus (Fraenkel), and bacterium coli, are among the specific micro-organisms which have been found intimately associated with this disease.

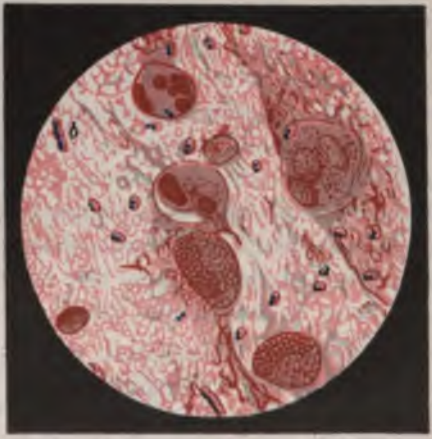


Fig. 135.—Diplococcus Pneumoniæ (Pneumococcus): (*a*) single diplococci; (*b*) the same in chains (Wolf's double stain). Leitz ocular I, oil immersion $^1/_{12}$. (Lenhartz-Brooks.)

Pathological Anatomy.—The tracheal and bronchial mucous membrane is intensely congested, and the lumen of the smaller bronchi filled with thick muco-pus, which adheres to the surfaces and is as tenacious as a pseudo-membrane. The lung at the seat of infection shows dark brown or brownish-red, infiltrated areas, sometimes of a bluish-red color. The surface of the pleura contains large or small hæmorrhagic areas. They resemble a sort of hepatization, brownish, grayish, or yellowish-gray in color, and in some areas have purulent infiltrations. Sometimes the interstitial tissue is associated in this condition with a tendency toward cicatricial formation. Sometimes the alveoli have an emphysematous distention. The whole process seems to be a bronchiolitis associated with cir-

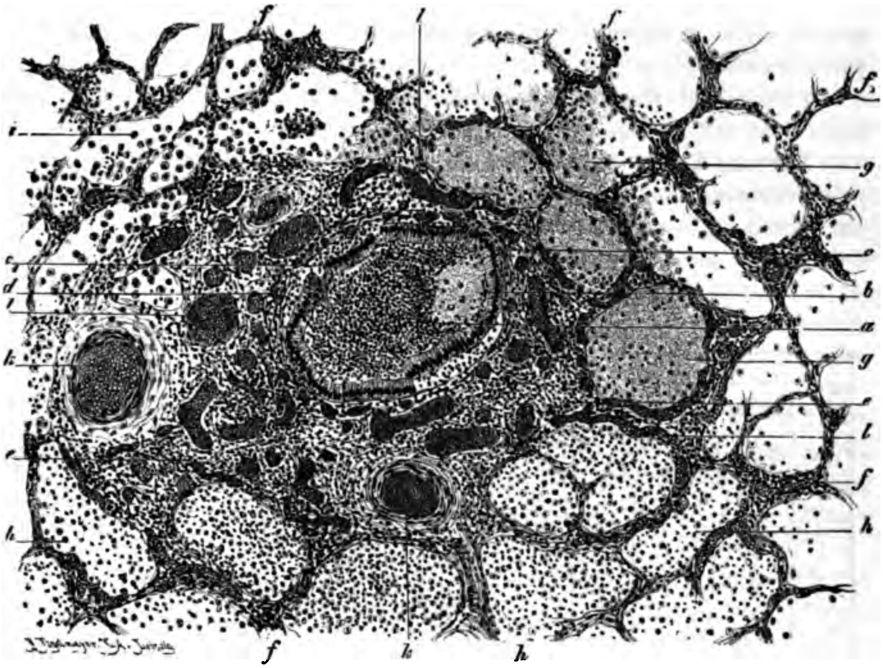


Fig. 136.—Purulent (Suppurative) Bronchitis, Peribronchitis and Peribronchial Broncho-pneumonia in a Child Fifteen Months Old. (*a*) Purulent; (*b*) mucoid bronchial contents; (*c*, *c*¹) bronchial epithelium infiltrated with round cells and partly desquamated (*c*¹); (*d*) bronchial wall containing strongly congested blood-vessels and infiltrated with cells; (*e*) cellular infiltrated peribronchial and periarterial connective tissue; (*f*) septum between the lung alveoli, partly infiltrated with cells; (*g*) fibrinous exudate in the alveoli; (*h*) alveoli filled with richly cellular, (*i*) with poorly cellular exudate; (*k*) transverse section of pulmonary arteries; (*l*) strongly congested bronchial, peribronchial and intra-acinous vessels. X 45. (Ziegler.)

cumscribed atelectasis of the lung, from which hyperæmia and infiltrations of tissue result.

Symptoms.—The symptoms are those of a bronchial catarrh and a bronchitis. Associated with this there is the usual fever, restlessness, and an increased frequency of respiration; there is also dyspnœa. There is a distinct cyanosis affecting not only the face and lips, but frequently the nails. There is an anxious expression to the countenance. The alæ nasi participate in the respiration. The whole respiration seems to be superficial and brings every muscle into action. That there is an obstruction can easily be seen by an observation of the jugulum, by noticing the intercostal space and also the epigastrium, which sinks at each inspiration. The frequency of respiration will sometimes be increased to 70 or 80 per minute, and it is very jerky in character. The pulse-rate will suddenly rise to 140 or 160, and frequently in some cases to 200 per minute. The temperature may be as low as 100° F. and gradually rise one degree or more each day. It may reach 104° or 105° F. in the evening. The temperature usually found in scrofulous, tuberculous, rachitic, and syphilitic children. When children have previously suffered from infections such as diphtheria, scarlet fever, measles, or typhoid fever, they are peculiarly predisposed to this secondary infection. It is for this latter reason that this disease is so fatal. In a series of fatal cases accompanying the various types of diphtheria seen by me at the Willard Parker Hospital, the large bulk succumbed to this complication. This is due in a great measure to the devitalized condition of the body after a toxæmic infection, such as is found in diphtheria. Whether or not this disease is contagious has not been definitely settled.

Bacteriology.—We know that various forms of germs, such as the staphylococcus, streptococcus, the diplococcus pneumonia (Friedlander), the diplococcus (Fraenkel), and bacterium coli, are among the specific micro-organisms which have been found intimately associated with this disease.

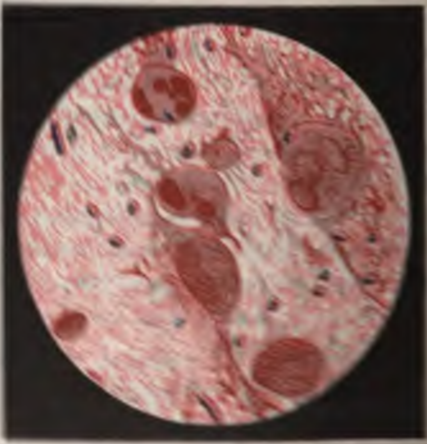


Fig. [illegible].—Diplococcus Pneumoniæ (Pneumococcus): (a) single diplococci; (b) the same in chains (Wolff's double stain). Leitz ocular I, oil immersion 1/12. (Lambert-Brooks.)

Pathological Anatomy.—The tracheal and bronchial mucous membrane is intensely congested, and the lumen of the smaller bronchi filled with thick muco-pus, which adheres to the surfaces and is as tenacious as a pseudo-membrane. The lung at the seat of infection shows dark brown or brownish-red, infiltrated areas, sometimes of a bluish-red color. The surface of the pleura contains large or small hemorrhagic areas. They resemble a sort of hepatization, brownish, grayish, or yellowish-gray in color, and in some areas have purulent [illegible] [illegible] tissue is associated in this [illegible] [illegible] formation. Sometimes the [illegible] tion. The whole process [illegible]

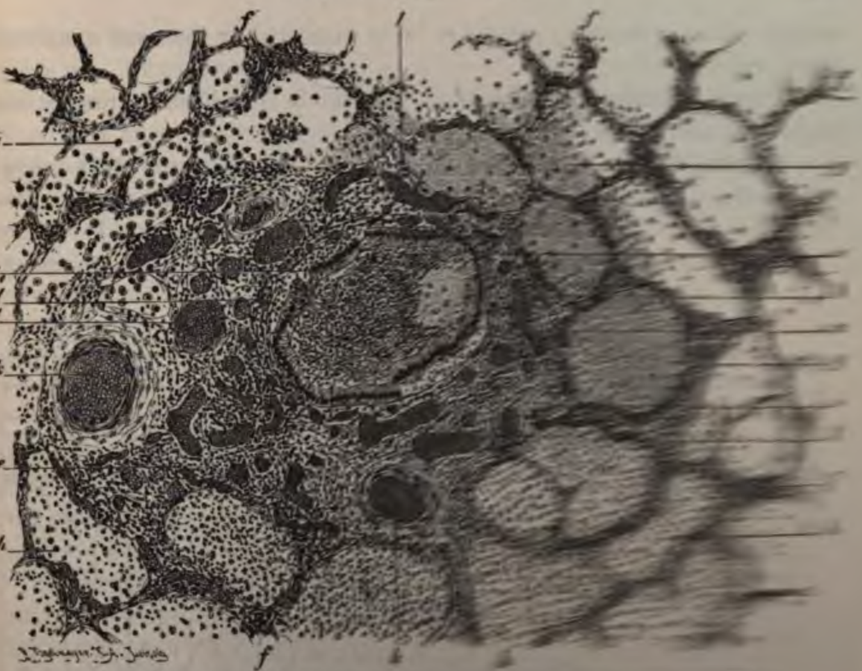


Fig. 136.—Purulent (Suppurative) [illegible] bronchial Broncho-pneumonia in a [illegible] lent; (*b*) mucoid bronchial contents; [illegible] with round cells and partly desquamated [illegible] ing strongly congested blood-vessels [illegible] infiltrated peribronchial and [illegible] tween the lung alveoli, partly [illegible] in the alveoli; (*h*) alveoli filled [illegible] exudate; (*k*) transverse section [illegible] gested bronchial, peribronchial [illegible]

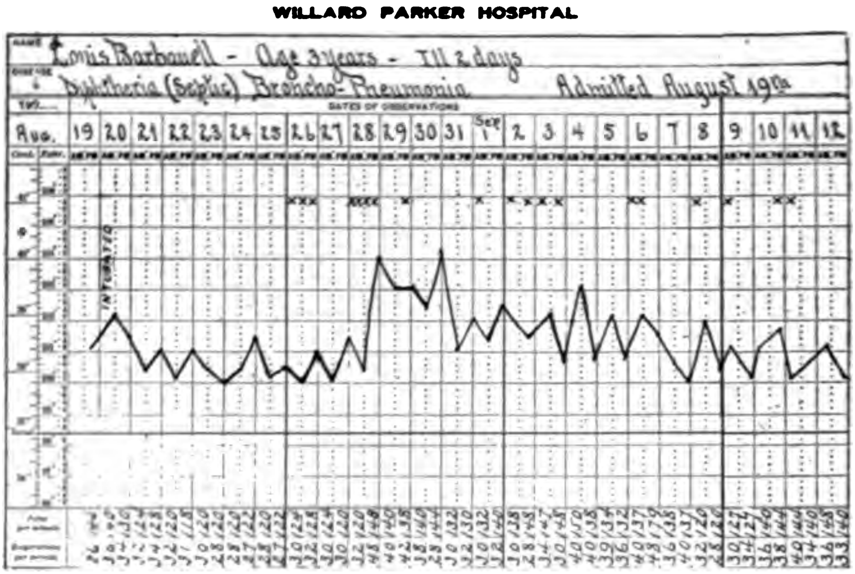
[illegible] at [illegible] nd [illegible] osis [illegible] the total cumscribed atelectasis of the [illegible] origin of this of tissue result. [illegible] measles, diph-

Symptoms.—The [illegible] child has passed bronchitis. Associated [illegible] ements of the blood an increased frequency [illegible], on the other hand, distinct cyanosis [illegible] the child is in a fairly nails. There is an [illegible] good. The prognosis will participate in the [illegible] be properly assimilated and ficial and brings [illegible] The course is slow and tedious, can easily be [illegible] costal space [illegible] in this condition. The prognosis of frequency [illegible] ooping-cough, measles, or diphtheria will [illegible] cent. of cases so affe[illegible] fatal.

[illegible] perature is high, a [illegible] medies, such as [illegible] re not indicated, o [illegible] well-known de-usually shows a morning remission of at least one or two and sometimes three degrees.

Pictorial illustrations of broncho-pneumonia complicating measles and diphtheria will be found in their respective chapters.

Physical Examination.—The physical examination of the thorax shows moist râles, sibilant or sonorous râles, or coarse mucous râles, at times distinct bronchial breathing accompanied by a metallic sound. Percussion will usually show dullness over small areas. While this may be due to the localized area of consolidation, it is quite possible that the dullness may also be attributed to enlarged bronchial glands in this region. When the disease terminates favorably the temperature falls, the pulse assumes a more regular character, the heart sounds, which formerly were feeble, appear louder, stronger, and rhythmic. The cough will be more frequent, the respiration less frequent and not so superficial. Children who formerly were apathetic now appear to notice everything, and appear very sensitive



Reintubated.

Fig. 137.—Louis B. Aged 3 years. This very instructive case illustrates the tolerance of the larynx for the intubation tube. In all, twenty intubations were performed. The chart illustrates the tube coughed up four times in one day, thus requiring four distinct intubations in twenty-four hours. In spite of the fact that the case was septic from the beginning, and that the child had a broncho-pneumonia, the case recovered. In order to retain the tube and prevent its being coughed up, the caliber was gradually increased from a number three until an eleven to twelve tube was used.

on being handled, and especially so during an examination. The physical signs of a diffused bronchitis and the diffused areas of moist râles associated with the localized areas of bronchial breathing disappear. The bronchial breathing which existed before now becomes vesicular in character. The pulse, which formerly was greatly accelerated, and the respiration, which was very frequent, now both return to their normal state. The whole character of this affection has no specific rule, but drags along without a distinct termination, differing from that condition so well known and described as croupous pneumonia. It is not rare to note an apparent cessation of the inflammatory condition in the pulse, respiration, and temperature, and to find that new inflammation has begun with more active symptoms than has been just passed through.

We can therefore see that a broncho-pneumonia frequently is a continuance of an inflammation which spreads from portion to portion and from lobe to lobe, and thus devitalizes the system. The symptoms affecting the gastro-intestinal tract and those of the genito-urinary organs are the same as found in croupous pneumonia.

The differential diagnosis between catarrhal and fibrous pneumonia can easily be made by a comparison of the course which these diseases run. Catarrhal pneumonia commences with symptoms of a bronchial catarrh or a bronchitis. These same symptoms remain during the course of the disease. The symptoms do not have those of an acute character which characterize croupous pneumonia, but rather assume a chronic appearance. The great danger consists in the development of pus infiltration in the lungs, and it is only by the rapid emaciation that symptoms of *miliary tuberculosis* can be suspected.

We can differentiate catarrhal pneumonia from atalectasis by the total absence of fever in atalectic conditions.

Prognosis and Course.—The prognosis depends on the origin of this disease. If, for example, broncho-pneumonia is a sequela to measles, diphtheria, whooping-cough, scarlet fever, or typhoid, and the child has passed through a severe infection in which the corpuscular elements of the blood have greatly suffered, then the prognosis is grave. If, on the other hand, this disease commences as a primary affection and the child is in a fairly well-nourished condition, then the prognosis is good. The prognosis will chiefly depend on the amount of food that can be properly assimilated and the care with which the case is nursed. The course is slow and tedious, and may develop tubercular pneumonia.

The hygiene is very important in this condition. The prognosis of catarrhal pneumonia following whooping-cough, measles, or diphtheria will usually show that almost 70 per cent. of cases so affected are fatal.

Treatment.—If the temperature is high, antipyretic remedies, such as the coal-tar products, are not indicated, owing to their well-known depressing effect upon the heart. The author has never used them without seeing an ill effect. When they are used they should be combined with camphor or musk to counteract this well-known depression. The safest antipyretic measure in pulmonic affections is undoubtedly hydrotherapy. A cold compress applied over the thorax and repeated once every half-hour, not only acts as an antipyretic, but will stimulate the respiratory muscles and provoke deep inspirations. This will distend the smaller portions of the alveoli and will prevent atalectasis pulmonum. If there is very great dyspnœa owing to the presence of viscid secretions, then an emetic is indicated. One of our best emetics is sulphate of copper in 1-grain doses, repeated in an hour if necessary. Another emetic and one which is less irritating than the above is syr. scillæ comp. in $^{1}/_{2}$ to 1 teaspoonful doses, repeated every half-hour until the desired effect is produced. Syrup of ipecac in doses of one teaspoonful, repeated every fifteen to twenty minutes, is also serviceable. When a child has extreme dyspnœa and it is not wise to administer an emetic by mouth, then a hypodermic injection of $^{1}/_{20}$ grain of apomorphia dissolved in five or ten minims of sterile water injected deeply into the subcutaneous cellular tissue will usually provoke emesis. If this dose is not effectual in fifteen or twenty minutes, then another

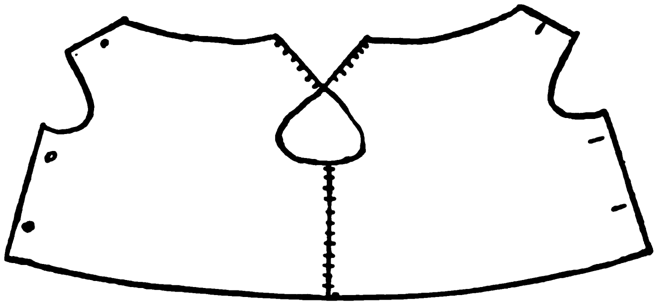


Fig. 138.—Diagram for Pneumonia Jacket Opened at Side.

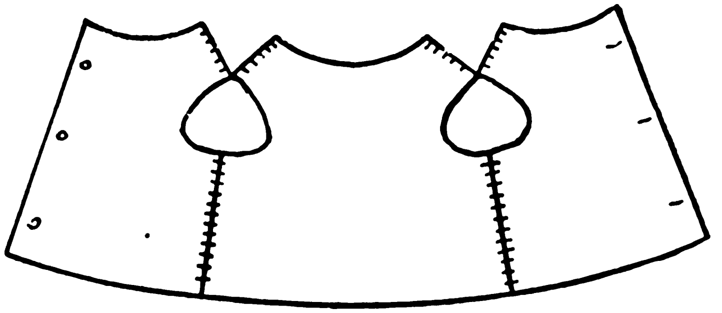


Fig. 139.—Diagram for Pneumonia Jacket Opened in Front. (Original.)

dose of apomorphia may be given. Tartar emetic in doses of $^1/_{10}$ grain, in sweetened water, may be given every hour until vomiting is produced. It is better not to change from one drug to another unless several doses have proven ineffectual.

Flaxseed poultices are sometimes recommended when the secretions are very viscid. These have frequently proven efficacious in the hands of the author. In urgent dyspnœa great relief can be afforded by the application of dry cups over the affected areas of the lungs.

A pneumonia jacket consisting of cheese cloth, which is worn next to the skin, then a layer of cotton-wool, and the whole covered with oiled silk or oiled muslin will serve to prevent chilling of the surface. Figs. 141 and 142 show diagrams of these jackets.

Internal diffusible stimulations, such as ½-grain doses of carbonate of ammonia, repeated every hour, are serviceable. Liq. ammon. anisati, in doses of from 3 to 10 drops, repeated every hour, is one of our best diffusible stimulants. If symptoms of collapse appear then active alcoholic stimulation must be resorted to, such, for example, as champagne, brandy, whisky, or wine *ad libitum.* In addition thereto, a sinapism over the front and back of the chest and mustard foot baths may be required. Hypodermic medication will frequently be found necessary, especially if the heart's action is feeble. One two-hundredth of a grain of nitro-glycerine injected hypodermically or caffeine citrate will sometimes work well. Strychnine sulphate in doses of $^1/_{200}$ grain, gradually increased, repeated every three or four hours or oftener, will stimulate the heart's action. An excellent heart stimulant is to give 1 drop of tincture of musk every hour.

If the cough is very troublesome, especially at night, and the child is in a fair physical condition, then codeine in doses of $^1/_{20}$ to $^1/_{10}$ grain for a child 1 year old, repeated every two or three hours, will relieve. Dionin is a remedy that has been used by the writer with considerable success in the treatment of various forms of cough in doses of $^1/_{20}$ grain, repeated every three or four hours, for a child 1 year old.

Stimulating expectorants such as syrup of senega, in doses of from 10 to 15 minims, may be advantageous. The vital point to remember is to support the system with nourishment. If the child will not take food per mouth, then rectal feeding consisting of nutrient enemas is demanded.

Water should be given freely during the course of a broncho-pneumonia to stimulate the action of the kidneys.

PLEURISY.

An inflammation of the pleura is by no means rare in children. It is found very frequently post-mortem, although no evidence of the same existed *intra vitam.* It may be a primary condition.

There are two distinct forms of pleurisy usually seen: 1. Pleuritis sicca (dry pleurisy). 2. Pleuritis exudativa. The latter form can again be divided into (*a*) serous, (*b*) sero-purulent, (*c*) purulent, (*d*) hæmorrhagic.

The last mentioned is a rare condition. It is seen in traumatic conditions, in hæmophilia, and occasionally when tuberculosis is present.

DRY PLEURISY.

This form of pleurisy usually follows an exposure to cold, although it may follow as a secondary inflammation to the lung. There is usually an exudation of fibrin only.

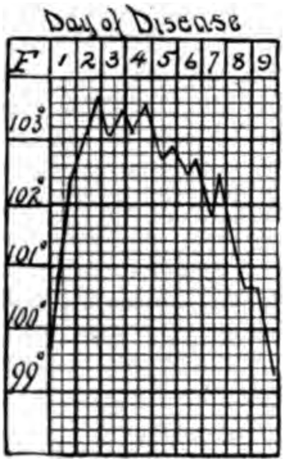


Fig. 140.—Fever Curve in a Case of Dry Pleurisy. (Original.)

Pathology.—The pleura is swollen and thickened, and there is an exudation of fibrin. Adhesions frequently result from these bands of fibrin between the opposite pleural surfaces. The pleura loses its natural luster. When the process ceases and the lymph is absorbed, the condition is called "dry pleurisy." The fibrinous bands between the pleura costalis and pulmonalis usually leave permanent adhesions.

Symptoms.—The disease is usually ushered in with high fever, which may reach 104° or 105° F. Cough is usually present. It is a short, hacking, irritating cough. It is accompanied with pain. As a rule, children cry during each coughing paroxysm. A characteristic symptom often noted is that a child suffering with pleurisy usually places its hand over the affected area during a coughing paroxysm. This lends support to the ribs and relieves pain. There is no expectoration. A friction sound or a fine, crepitant râle is heard over the affected area. There is vesicular breathing. The percussion is rarely abnormal. The tongue is usually coated. The bowels are constipated. The urine is scanty. The surface of the body is dry and warm. There is usually a gradual increasing dyspnœa. The pulse-rate is increased; so also are the respirations. The symptoms resemble those of a pneumonia and can rarely be differentiated without a careful physical examination. There is usually pain on percussion over the affected area. The children do not wish to be handled, but prefer to lie quietly.

The diagnosis depends on the symptoms above described. We must bear in mind the frequency with which pulmonary complications are associated.

The prognosis is usually good, although adhesions frequently remain.

Treatment.—Counter-irritation, such as cupping of the chest, the application of iodine over the affected area, or painting with cantharidal collodion, acts well. Strapping the chest with broad straps of adhesive plaster or the application of a very tight fitting bandage seems to support the chest and relieve the cough. Calomel is indicated, especially if constipation accompanies this condition. Iodide of sodium, with very small doses of codeine, may be given at regular intervals to relieve pain. A full dose of codeine or morphine may be given at night if the cough is distressing or the pain acute. I have given from $^1/_{30}$ to $^1/_{20}$ grain of morphine hypodermically to a child 2 years old to relieve a severe cough.

Pleurisy with Effusion (Pleuritis Exudativa).

This secondary form of pleurisy is usually a complication or an extension of the infection in pneumonia. It is frequently met with in influenza and in infectious diseases. I have frequently seen pleurisy with effusion in the scarlet fever wards of the Riverside Hospital. I have also seen pleurisy complicating tuberculosis and rheumatism in children.

Bacteriology.—In some cases the streptococcus, in others the staphylococcus, is present. A diplococcus has also been found and believed by some to be the cause of pleuritis. The pneumococcus has been found present, so that it is difficult to state which pathogenic microbe is the true cause of this condition. Whether this microbe gains entrance to the pleura from the lung by inhalation or through the skin, or whether the tonsil is the means of entrance of the pathogenic bacteria causing this disease, has not been definitely determined. We know that suppuration in other parts of the body, as, for example, in the abdomen or in the spine, can frequently carry microbic elements to the pleura and thus directly transmit the infection. Pyogenic bacteria may be carried to the pleura through the lymph channels and by the circulation.

Pathology.—This form of exudative pleurisy is the one most frequently encountered. We rarely find both sides involved, although a double pleurisy is by no means rare. The pathological condition is practically the same as described in the chapter on "Dry Pleurisy." In this condition we have more or less serous effusion. The serum may be clear, it may be bloody, or it may be turbid. Serous effusions found in a healthy child are usually absorbed. Adhesions are frequently left in this form of pleurisy.

Symptoms.—The fever may be high or low. Fever and general malaise accompanied by a hacking cough will frequently be the only symptoms. I have frequently seen children brought to my clinic with the history of *a cough, no expectoration,* anorexia, with general weakness and emaciation, in whom a pleurisy with a large effusion was detected.

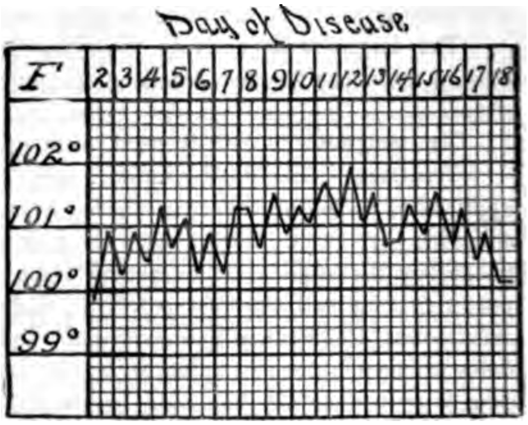


Fig. 141.—Fever Curve in a Case of Pleurisy with Effusion. (Original.)

Diagnosis.—The diagnosis in very young children is at times difficult. It can only be made by a most careful physical examination of the chest.

Physical Signs.—Before the effusion is marked, and during its absorption friction sounds are heard over the inflamed area. *After the effusion* is present there are no friction sounds. There are an absence of râles, distant bronchial breathing, and *flatness* on percussion. There is diminished breathing, so that the voice or the cry of the child will appear very distant. At the level of the fluid the voice has a tremulous sound, known as *ægophony.* There is a bulging of the intercostal spaces. The breathing is bronchial or tubular. Not infrequently the heart is displaced. A careful inspection of the chest will show that there is a loss of motion on the affected side during respiration.

In some cases the diagnosis depends on the result of an exploratory puncture with a clean (aseptic) needle having a large caliber. One of the best needles for this purpose is one similar to that used for the injection of antitoxin. A puncture should be made after washing the skin with soap and water followed by alcohol or ether. The needle is then inserted about one inch. Sometimes it is necessary to make several exploratory punctures in order to find the liquid, especially so in the encapsulated form of pleurisy, where a small area is involved. After withdrawing the liquid the character of the same should be determined by examining it under the microscope. If pus corpuscles are found we should insist on an operation, as no other treatment will be satisfactory. Not infrequently a serous effusion will be absorbed by the exploratory puncture, so that the puncture is at times a very valuable therapeutic adjunct.

Treatment.—Firm strapping of the chest with bands of adhesive plaster is useful; 5- to 15- grain doses of iodide of sodium, according to age, may be administered three times a day in milk, soup, or broth. Fresh air should be constantly permitted. If pain is absent gentle, but long inspirations and expirations (pulmonary gymnastics) are worth trying. By properly exercising the lungs we can stimulate nutrition to the parts and frequently assist in the absorption of an effusion.

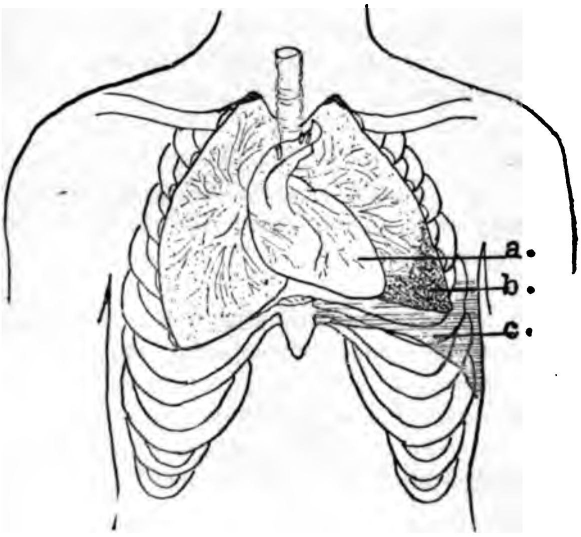


Fig. 142.—Diagrammatic Illustration of Heart and Lungs in a Left-sided Pleuritic Effusion. *a.* Heart. *b.* Compressed lung, area of bronchial breathing and crepitant râles. *c.* Effusion. (Original.)

Dietetic Treatment.—No matter what form of treatment is instituted, nothing will avail so much as proper feeding. The dairy products—milk, eggs, and cheese—in conjunction with cereals and fruits, should form the bulk of the food ordered. Concentrated soups and broths are also useful.

EMPYEMA (PURULENT PLEURISY).

Etiology.—As a rule we find this disease following pneumonia or pleurisy. It is a favorite complication of the infectious diseases, so that after a pneumonia in an acute infectious disease we must not be surprised to find an empyema.

Bacteriology.—The bacteria most frequently found are the streptococcus, the staphylococcus, and the pneumococcus. Rarely has the tubercle bacillus been found.

Pathology.—The surface of the pleura is covered with fibrin and pus and the cavity filled with a purulent exudate, the result of this inflammation. The pus settles to the bottom of the pleural sac.

Not infrequently both pleuræ become involved, although the rule is to find but one pleura or part of it affected. When not treated the pus may rupture into the lung or burrow externally through an intercostal space.

Symptoms.—*The most pronounced symptoms are flatness on percussion and diminished respiratory sounds. Sometimes they are totally absent. There is also a loss of the vocal fremitus. At the level of the fluid the voice has a tremulous quality known as ægophony.*

Above the fluid the breathing is broncho-vesicular due to the compressed lung. Pleurothotonos is sometimes seen.

There is an absence of expansion of the chest on the affected side. When this condition exists on the left side it may displace the heart.

I rely upon the examination of the blood, in addition to the physical signs given, as an important guide in determining the presence of pus in the system. See article and illustration of "Blood Reaction of Pus," in the chapter on "Blood."

Diagnosis.—If the fever continues after a case of pneumonia, or pain in the chest persists accompanied by dypsnœa, cough, and sweats, then empyema should be suspected.

When the disease progresses the temperature frequently returns to normal or nearly so. The child shows symptoms of general exhaustion, emaciation, and is extremely anæmic. Diarrhœa is a frequent symptom in this condition.

The physical signs above noted are usually positive. When there is any doubt, and in order to confirm the symptoms pointing to an empyema, an exploratory puncture should be made.

If the needle is sterile and sharp and the surface to be punctured is rendered aseptic, then there is no risk in making one or more punctures to aid in establishing the diagnosis.

Choice as to Where the Needle is to be Introduced.—My plan has always been to find by percussion the area having the greatest dullness or flatness, and insert the needle after noting the following:—

Points to be Noted while Making an Exploratory Puncture.—The skin should be washed with soap and water, dried, and again washed with alcohol, and lastly with ether. The needle should be boiled about five minutes before being used.

If the needle is introduced on the right side, due allowance must be made for dullness in the region occupied by the liver. Do not introduce the needle too near the region of the spine, but choose rather an intercostal space in the axillary line or preferably below the scapula on either side. If the needle is introduced on the left side do not push it too forcibly nor too deeply or hæmorrhage may result. Sometimes the fluid is fibrinous and will not readily enter the caliber of the needle. If the needle is plunged too far and enters a dilated bronchus, due allowance must be made for a purulent secretion, which should not be mistaken for empyema.

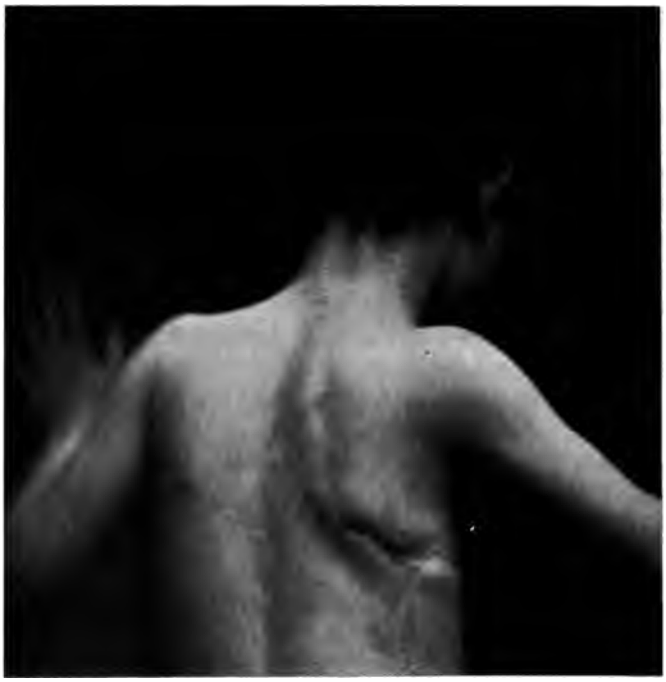


Fig. 143.—Illustrating a Severe Localized, Right-sided Empyema. Two ribs were resected. The child made a complete recovery. The thorax shows very slight deformity after the operation. (Original.)

Prognosis.—This depends upon the general condition at the time of the operation. If the tubercle bacillus is found in the pus the prognosis is bad. The longer the disease existed the more doubtful the prognosis. If the condition is a sequela to a pneumonia or a pleurisy then the prognosis is good.

Course.—The tendency of empyema in a child is to recovery. Out of 20 cases operated by me, 18 recovered in four to five weeks. One case recovered after six months of continued surgical treatment, and was operated three times. One case was ill over two years, tubercle bacilli being found. This case belonged to the tuberculous type of empyema.

Estlander recommended (thoracoplasty). The adhesions must be broken up and thorough drainage allowed. When such a radical operation is performed, deformity usually follows. These cases belong to the surgeon.

TUBERCULAR EMPYEMA.

This condition, while rare, has been seen by me twice during the last five years. It is found in families where tuberculosis exists. We must bear in mind that a tubercular empyema may be the complication of what was formerly a non-tubercular type.

Environment and heredity play an important part in the etiology of this condition. Just as a tuberculosis may follow the broncho-pneumonia of measles, so I believe that tubercular empyema may also develop. The following case will illustrate this condition as seen by me in consultation in New York City:—

M. J., 5 years old, was referred to be by Dr. Mehrenlander, with a history of cough, fever, and emaciation. The diagnosis of empyema was made and an exploratory puncture showed the presence of pus. With the assistance of Dr. Mehrenlander I performed a thoracotomy. As there were thick, croupous masses, two ribs were resected and a drainage tube inserted. In this case the wound discharged several months and an examination of the pus showed the presence of tubercle bacilli. With the aid of fresh air and restoratives, such as codliver-oil, creosote carbonate, and special attention to the out-door life, the child recovered.

Family History.—The child's father and mother are living. Their occupation is janitor and janitress in a tenement house. They receive in compensation for services free rent, so that gives them very unsanitary surroundings. The bedrooms are dark and very unsanitary. An older brother, 17 years of age, has acute apical tuberculosis. This older brother when brought to me for a slight cough showed no visible evidence of disease; in fact, he appeared well nourished. His sputum contained tubercle bacilli. We therefore have in the two cases just described a tubercular empyema associated with family tuberculosis. The coexistence of empyema and a family history of tuberculosis strengthened my opinion that, living under the same unsanitary conditions and associating together, these cases were most probably transmitted or communicated.

The excellent results which have been reported during the last few years by the treatment with an artificial pneumothorax, and the injections of nitrogen, lend encouragement in the treatment of this fatal disease. From my own experience I strongly favor this method in every case in which tuberculosis exists.

PART VII.

THE INFECTIOUS DISEASES.

CHAPTER I.

FEVER.[1]

THIS is a pathological process generally caused by the poisonous products of bacteria, and characterized by a rise of temperature above the limit of the daily variation. It is further associated with an increase in the frequency of the heart and the respiratory movements, often with an increase in excretion of urea and ammonia in the urine and a diminution in the alkalies and CO_2 in the blood.[2]

Some authors state that the cause of fever is the action of bacterial poison or of other substances on the heat centers, and that antipyretics or drugs which reduce the temperature in fever, do so by restoring the centers to their normal state by preventing the development of the poisons, aiding their elimination, or antagonizing their action. Thus it has been stated (supporting the latter view) that if the basal ganglia have been cut off (by section of the pons) from their lower nervous connections, fever is no longer produced by injection of cultures of bacteria which readily cause it in an intact animal—while antipyrine has no influence on the temperature. These experiments were reported by Sawadowski.

Some observers have been unable to find any clear evidence of heat centers; that is, of localized portions of the central nervous system specially concerned in the regulation of the body temperature.

It is almost certain that some pyrogenic or fever-producing agent—cocaine, for example—acts indirectly through the brain or cord, and likely others affect directly the activity of the tissues in general, just as some antipyretics or fever-reducing agents, such as quinine, seem to act immediately upon the heat-forming tissues, while antipyrine affects them through the nervous system.

Variations in Temperature.[3]—The temperature of the body is not constant. It varies with the time of day, with eating, with age, somewhat with violent changes in the external temperature (hot or cold baths), and even possibly with sex.

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[1] For treatment of fever, see pages 474 and 475.

[2] Stewart's Physiology, p. 443. Article on "Animal Heat."

[3] The temperature as a diagnostic aid is described in Part I, page 11.

The lowest temperature is recorded between 2 and 6 A.M. The highest at 5 to 8 P.M. There is a corresponding fluctuation of pulse-rate at the same time of day.

Taking of food increases the temperature, but not more than one-half of a degree in healthy individuals. Entrance of food into the body increases metabolic activity, no doubt through entrance of products of digestion into the blood.

Sex.—Females usually have higher temperature than males.

Relation of Age to Temperature.—There is a relative imperfection between heat regulation in old people and young children; thus, young children are more liable to sudden increase in temperature as well as to chills. A fit of crying will send up the temperature. Sudden fright (slamming a door) will send up the temperature (J. L. Smith).

Mosso reports that the rectal temperature rose three degrees in a dog rendered helpless with injections of curare. When injections of strychnine were given, this latter (strychnine) no doubt irritated the nervous system. He found that the presence of food was enough to cause the rise in the temperature of the dog.

Thus we find that the usual fever-causing factors are:—

1. Toxins.
2. Ferments.
3. Products of waste which are absorbed in the lymphatics (detritus).

We know that the regulation of the heat is brought about by the central nervous system, and we also know the influence brought about by the vasomotor (nervous) system in dilating and contracting the capillaries.

The discovery of Aronsohn and Sachs, that by traumatism or irritation of the corpus striatum, an elevation of temperature is produced, is still a question, doubted by many distinguished observers. But it certainly does look as though a certain center or centers exist which influence the body temperature.

Knowing then that other agencies besides disease cause an elevated temperature, the question arises: Are we justified in designating every rise of temperature as "fever"? Hardly. An elevation of temperature (above normal) should be designated as "hyperthermia." We know that the fever is caused by the absorption of infectious products which later cause a breaking down and loss of the red blood-corpuscles, breaking down of the tissues, and disintegration of albumin and its compounds, and produce symptoms pointing to distinct disorders in the human economy. Some authors have described fever under two headings or divisions:—

1. Septic.
2. Aseptic.

As an example of a septic fever, we have that chronic poisoning of the human organism which takes place in chronic pulmonary tuberculosis, and even in this latter toxæmic process we find sudden rises of temperature, which must be explained by emotional means, or rather by nervous causes. In a tuberculous patient whose system is overwhelmed with toxins (chronic and continuous poisoning) we can readily understand why the thermic centers as well as all other centers could be easily influenced to cause a sudden rise in temperature responding to a slight emotion or fright.

Let us now consider so-called "nervous" or, as it has been designated, "hysterical fever." The latter term we owe to the French authors (Pomme, Toussot, Baillon, Rivière). By this we mean a febrile condition which is not caused by any inflammatory or other disease agency, and which is found in either very nervous, neurasthenic, or hysterical patients.

Broussois (France) opposed this theory and believed this condition due chiefly to inflammatory changes in the ovary and uterus.

Briquet showed by careful examination the fallacy of the foregoing statements in a series of noteworthy investigations.

In 1888 Chaveau, in Paris, wrote a careful dissertation called "Fièvre Hysterique," and divided this condition into several distinct groups. A characteristic point is the absence of gastric disturbance (digestive), showing that it was not a malignant disturbance.

Chaveau looked to the cause of his cases in an abnormal excitation of the thermic center in sensitive (nervous) individuals. An accompanying factor he believes to be either traumatic or psychic disturbances.

Wunderlich (Germany) long ago called attention to the fact that hysteria influences the temperature, and that in hysterical neurosis we find sudden elevations of temperature. It is a remarkable fact and one noted by many others that *one side of the body* shows this high temperature without any pathological condition manifesting itself.

Rosenthal (Vienna) found distinct localized areas of redness with marked rise of temperature in this area, but found no general febrile disturbance. The patient was decidedly hysterical. Strumpell agrees that he has found very high temperatures, irregularly, but believes the patients simulated their marked hysterical and irritable condition.

Ewald (Berlin) agrees that hysterical patients can produce high fever by reason of their excitement.

Hale White (England) doubts that the thermogenetic functions should cause high fever, and cites instances which were known as hysterical paralysis.

Cleman reported in the Clinical Society of London, 1883, a case of hysterical fever showing the enormous temperature of 111° F. at various times.

Hale White believed that a mistake in reading the thermometer was made.

TABLE NO. 42.—*Acute Specific Infectious Diseases.*

Disease.	Symptoms Begin After Exposure.	Characteristic Symptoms.	Other Symptoms.	Desquamation.	Complications and Sequelæ.	Duration of Disease.	Isolation.
Influenza.	1 to 3 days.	Fever, coryza, bronchial, gastroenteric symptoms, at times cerebral symptoms, such as convulsions — or stupor—with muscular twitching.	Crying as if in pain.	. . . .	Lungs. Kidneys. Intestines. Nervous system.	About 1 week.	2 weeks.
Pneumonia.	Indefinite. Usually a few days.	Disturbed ratio of pulse and respiration. Normal ratio, 1 : 4. In this condition 1 : 3 and frequently 1 : 2.	Cough. Bronchial breathing. Dullness on percussion. No expectoration.	. . . . . .	Kidneys. Meningitis. Empyema. Tuberculosis.	5 to 8 days or longer.	About 2 weeks.
Measles.	8 to 14 days.	Enanthem on Buccal Mucous-membrane. Dusky or purplish red, slightly elevated spots, crescent-grouped, seen on face first.	Begins with cold in head, running eyes, cough, eruption on fourth day. High fever.	Furfuraceous in character.	Eye. Lung (empyema). Tuberculosis. Ear (mastoid). Heart.	3 to 7 days.	2 to 3 weeks.
German Measles.	1 to 3 weeks.	Pale rose red spots or blush, not grouped, fades rapidly.	Slight fever, eruption on first day.	. . . . . .	Rare.	About 1 week.	2 weeks.
Scarlet Fever.	1 to 8 days.	Intense bright red blush over body beginning on chest.	Sore throat, vomiting high fever, eruption first or second day.	Small scales.	Kidney. Ear. Heart.	Little over 4 weeks.	6 weeks, contagion during desquamation.
Chicken Pox.	1 to 2 weeks	Pea-sized vesicles filled with watery fluid.	Slight fever, eruption first day.	Small crusts.	Rare.	About 1 week.	2 to 3 weeks.
Smallpox	12 days.	Papular stage is longer and the eruption ends with formation of pustules. Eruption is deep seated and hard, usually umbilicated. Frequently confluent vesicles, which do not collapse when pricked with a pin.	Convulsions frequently in children, fever, loss of appetite. Initial stage masked. Eruption largely on face, hands and feet.	Large crusts.	Larynx. Lungs.	3 to 4 weeks.	6 weeks.

Diphtheria.	2 to 10 days.	White or grayish-white membrane on tonsils or pharynx.	Sore throat, weakness, fever. Pain on swallowing. Older children complain of headache.	. . . .	Lungs. Heart. Kidneys. Ears. Brain. Paralysis.	1 to 2 weeks.	3 to 4 weeks.
Whooping Cough.	2 to 7 days.	A long paroxysm of coughing followed by the crowing whoop at the end, frequently ending in vomiting.	Cough during first week of infection resembles bronchitis. Characteristic cough, often not seen until second week. Vomiting.	. . . .	Heart. Bowel. Hæmorrhages.	6 to 8 weeks.	As long as the whoop lasts.
Mumps.	1 to 3 weeks.	Glandular swelling below one or both ears, under the jaw.	Pain on chewing, inability to swallow.	. . . .	Orchitis. Abscess.	About 1 week.	3 to 4 weeks.
Typhoid Fever.	5 to 14 days.	Rose-colored, lenticular-shaped spots appear at the beginning of the second week. Eruption lasts 6 to 10 days. Fever, step-ladder type.	Diarrhœa or constipation. Sometimes convulsions. Enlarged spleen. Thirst. Prostration. Delirium.	. . . .	Blood. Lungs. Heart. Peritoneum.	21 days.	. . . . .
Acute Arthritis.	3 to 5 days.	Cachectic appearance. Swelling of the joint. Fever.	Pain.	. . . .	Heart. Ankylosis.	1 to 3 weeks.	. . . . .
Malaria.	1 to 14 days.	Intermittent fever. Cyanosis affecting nails.	Enlarged spleen. Convulsions. Prostration. Drowsiness. Vomiting.	. . . .	. . . .	1 to 2 weeks. In rare cases months.	. . . . .
Syphilis.	Not positively known.	Eruption sometimes diffuse, flush or roseolar, more frequently macular, occurring in dark red spots about the size of an infant's tooth. Occur mostly on face and extremities. Painful swelling at extremities of long bones. Pseudo-paralysis.	Cachexia. Wasting. Coryza. Onychia. Diarrhœa.	. . . .	Lungs. Peritoneum.	. . . .	. . . . .
Erysipelas.	3 to 7 days.	Painful swelling of the lymphatic glands of the region involved. Intense red color of the region involved.	Prostration. Fever. Vomiting. Diarrhœa, Convulsions.	Yellowish-brown Crusts.	Gangrene. Septicæmia.	2 to 16 days.	Until after desquamation.

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* Tetanus is described in Part IX., "Diseases of the Brain and Nervous System."

Ughetti believes hysterical fevers exist, and cites, as proof of the same, fever in course of hysteria, chorea, epilepsy, and Basedow's disease.

The greatest scientific contribution on this subject has certainly been the work of A. Sarbo in the University of Psychiatrie and Nervous Diseases in Budapest.[1] He believes as a result of experimental study that the causation of fever should be looked forward to in the "central nervous system," and that the experimental discoveries of the thermic and vasomotor centers seem to confirm this. This author believes that fever which has no organic lesion as a cause should be called functional fever, which is a condition found in hysteria, the latter a functional neurosis. It is interesting to record that Debone increased the temperature by suggestion to 101.2° F., or 38.5° C.

Krafft-Ebing records temperatures by suggestion as high as 106.4° F.

Sarbo concludes by saying that from his clinical observations a *distinct hysterical fever* exists.

Hysterical fever can simulate by its exacerbation and remission such diseases as typhoid, malaria, tuberculosis, and meningitis.

Some years ago much was expected from the antipyretic drugs—antipyrin, acetanilid, and phenacetin; and if it could have been shown that they distinctly improved the condition of the fevered patient it would have been a strong argument against the view that pyrexia is a defensive mechanism.

When fever arises and a distinct diagnosis cannot be made, the child should be put on *the expectant plan of treatment*. This will consist in cleansing the gastro-intestinal tract, regulating the diet, and noting symptoms as they arise. This is especially indicated when we believe the case to be, in the period of incubation, of an infectious disease. At such times the following recipe is a good antipyretic and will not depress the heart:—

℞ Sweet spirit of niter	1½ fluidrachms
Citrate of potassium	30 grains
Syrup of lemon	4 fluidrachms
Aquæ q. s. ad	2 fluidounces

A teaspoonful every three hours, for child 1 year old.

I am indebted to Dr. William H. Guilfoy, Registrar of the New York Health Department, for many courtesies in the preparation of the statistics of the various infectious diseases.

BACTERIAL VACCINES.[2]

The vaccine treatment of disease in children has many advocates. There are very many instances in which specific results may be attained; on the other hand, we should not be disappointed when we meet with failures. The following class of cases lend themselves to this form of treatment:—

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[1] Published in the Archiv für Psychiatrie in 1891.

[2] These vaccines are prepared in the Sherman laboratories of Detroit, and in the Mulford laboratories of Philadelphia.

General Furunculosis.—A child 10 years of age was brought to my office with a series of furuncles that required incision. They healed after four or five days. Then new ones appeared. Surgical treatment was required. In all, over a dozen had developed. I decided to have an autogenous vaccine made. The pus was examined and proved to be staphylococcus pyogenes aureus. An injection of a vaccine containing 500,000,000 bacteria was given. These injections were repeated every other day until five were given. The child quickly recovered. These injections checked the development of new furuncles.

How to Procure an Autogenous Vaccine.—Clean the surface of the skin with alcohol or tincture of iodine. Make a small incision with a sterile bistoury into the furuncle and remove 1 drop of pus, to inoculate the surface of a blood-serum culture tube. Send to a laboratory to be placed in an incubator. From thirty-six to forty-eight hours' time is required to have a vaccine made.

Stock Vaccine.—If too remote from a laboratory, a stock vaccine of the staphylococcus variety may be used with excellent results.

Local infections, as well as general systemic infections with fever, do not contraindicate the use of these vaccines. They may be injected regardless of the temperature. Surgical treatment, and general systemic treatment of the bowels, kidneys, etc., should be continued just as though no vaccine had been used.

Streptococcus infections from the pleural cavity, as in empyema, or from the middle ear in acute otitis have been treated with vaccines.

The consensus of opinion found amongst competent clinical observers[1] is that the streptococcus vaccine has not the specific virtues, nor does the vaccine give the same benefit, obtained from the staphylococcus vaccine.

Streptococcus Tonsillitis.—Daily injections of an autogenous vaccine prepared from a smear produced marked improvement after several injections were given.

Erysipelas.—An autogenous vaccine was prepared from the Fehleisen bacillus isolated by blood culture. Marked improvement was noted after the first injection. The case recovered after several injections of 500,000,000 were given. It is essential, however, that all local and constitutional treatment should be continued, as it takes considerable time for the efficacy of the vaccine to be manifested.

Gonococcus Vaccine.—Gonococcus vaccine has been extensively tried in the scarlet fever wards of the Willard Parker Hospital in obstinate cases of purulent vulvo-vaginitis. Both stock vaccine and autogenous vaccine were used. The results showed the discharge considerably lessened in some cases, while in other cases it disappeared. When a smear was taken we found that the gonococcus persisted.[1]

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[1] Howland and Hoobler, Archives of Pediatrics, Sept., 1910.

Impetigo Contagiosa.—Excellent results have been obtained in the use of autogenous vaccines in this condition.

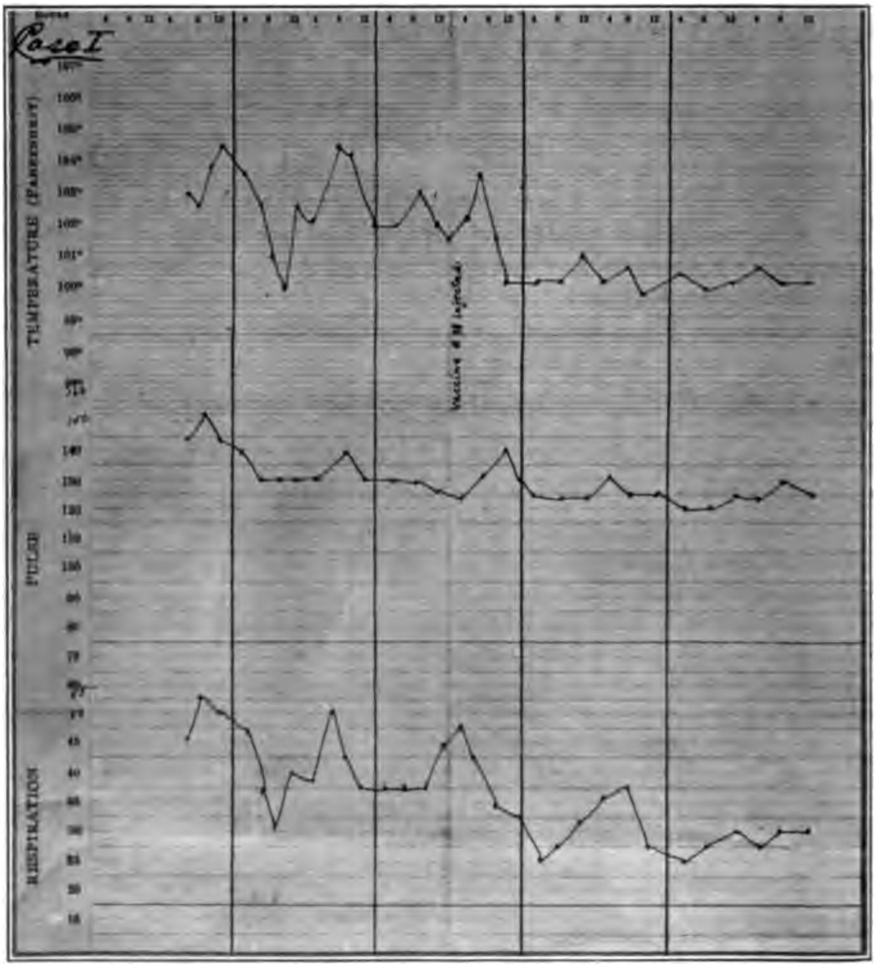

Fig. 145.—Temperature chart, Case I.

Typhoid Vaccines.—The preventive injection of typhoid fever vaccine is advocated by the United States Army. Sufficient evidence exists to show that typhoid fever can be prevented by a prophylactic series of injections. When, therefore, children are to be sent into a district in which the sanitary conditions are not perfect, it is advisable to give them a prophylactic injection of typhoid vaccine, rather than run the risk of contracting the disease.

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[1] See complete article on "Vulvovaginitis in Scarlet Fever."

One-half of the adult dose should be injected and repeated if no severe reaction occurs every three days for 3 doses.

Pertussis Vaccine.—The Bordet bacillus has been combined with the micrococcus catarrhalis. This combination when injected seems to lessen the paroxysms, and cut short the progress of the disease.

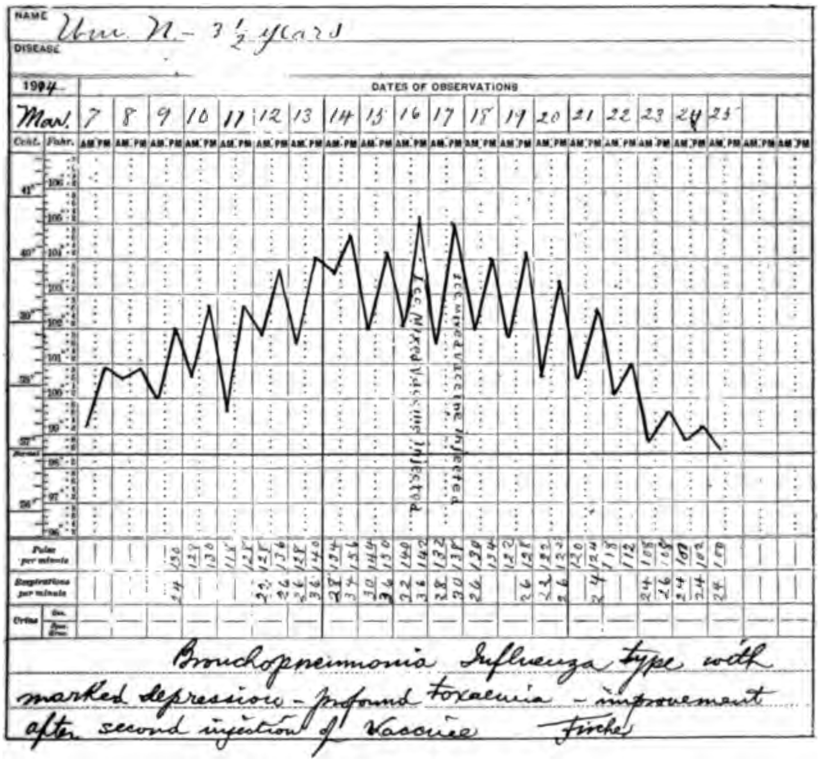

Fig. 146.—Temperature chart, Case II.

Rabies Vaccine.—The Pasteur treatment has now been simplified and can be administered at home by simple vaccine injections. When a child has been bitten by a dog, no time should be lost, but the treatment immediately begun. The daily dose for injection is contained in an ampule. The treatment should be continued for twenty-one days.

Vaccine Treatment of Pneumonia.—Literature records many cases of pneumonia in which marked improvement followed one or more injections of pneumococcus vaccine. My own experience with the vaccine has been good. I have used the heterogeneous variety, although in many cases an autogenous vaccine may be preferred. To procure an autogenous vaccine there are several difficulties encountered: First, the difficulty of procuring sputum from a child. Second, the time lost in waiting for a blood culture to grow, and then the preparation of a vaccine from the blood culture. This usually takes several days. When it is important to have an immediate effect, the stock vaccine should be used.

In the sputum there may be found the pneumococcus and the streptococcus. Frequently the streptococcus, staphylococcus, and influenza bacillus are found. Because of this mixed infection, the pure pneumococcus vaccine alone does not exert the specific influence that we might expect from it.

During the winter of 1914 I had occasion to see two unusually severe types of pneumonia. In one case an infant 13 months old received an injection of 1 cubic centimeter of the mixed influenza, pneumococcus, and streptococcus vaccine. The disease undoubtedly was cut short; the temperature dropped from 105° F. to normal in three days. The physical signs gradually disappeared. Convalescence was undoubtedly hastened by the use of the vaccine. (See temperature chart, Fig. 145.)

A second child, 3½ years old, began with a severe influenza affecting the nose and throat, and follicular tonsillitis. The inflammatory condition extended and a broncho-pneumonia was discovered seven days after the onset. In this case an injection of 1 cubic centimeter of the mixed pneumococcus, streptococcus, and influenza bacillus was given. As no distinct improvement was noted, a second injection was given, twenty-four hours later, after which decided improvement was noted. The disease terminated by lysis. The child recovered. (See temperature chart, Fig. 146.)

Vaccine treatment is especially indicated when fever is prolonged and resistance is poor. A marked leucocytosis usually follows these injections, thus proving that more resistance is given to the patient by such injection.

CHAPTER II.

PERTUSSIS (WHOOPING-COUGH).

THIS acute infectious disease is caused by a specific micro-organism.

Etiology.—The catarrhal type of child with hypertrophic tonsils, and especially the child with adenoid vegetations, is more susceptible to whooping-cough. When the cervical lymph-glands are enlarged, due to an infection of the lymphatics, then this disease will enter more readily. The tuberculous child and the syphilitic child will offer less resistance to this disease than the normal child.

Poor hygienic surroundings, and living in congested districts, where sunlight and fresh air are wanting, are factors that encourage the development of this infectious disease. Statistics have proven that a child artificially fed will take this infection quicker than an infant brought up on human milk.

Bacteriology.—In 1887 Affanasjew found a bacillus which was isolated from expectoration in the larynx and trachea. It was called the bacillus tussis convulsiva. Czaplewski and Hensel found a facultative anaërobic bacillus resembling the influenza bacillus, but somewhat larger. It has been impossible to make a pure culture of this so-called specific micro-organism and reproduce the disease in animals.

In 1906 Bordet and Gengou isolated a bacillus from the sputum of whooping-cough patients, but the complications of this disease are due to a mixed infection. Mallory and Hover[1] demonstrated that in pertussis there is a large accumulation of bacilli between the cilia of the respiratory epithelium, this interference with normal bacillary action hindering removal of inhaled particles, and thus depriving the lungs of their most effective means of resisting invading bacteria.

Rarely does uncomplicated pertussis cause death. Literature records isolated cases in which emphysema due to a rupture of the lung tissue occurred (Northrup). Other cases show a severe broncho-pneumonia, empyema, fibrous or serous pleurisy. Cerebral hæmorrhage, hæmorrhage of the eye, ear, and epistaxis have been reported in fatal cases.

After exposure to whooping-cough, symptoms may be noted as early as the third day; usually, however, they appear seven to fourteen days after exposure.

There are three stages to this disease: first, the catarrhal stage; second, the paroxysmal or spasmodic stage; third, the stage of decline.

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[1] Journal of Medical Research, Nov., 1912.

In the catarrhal stage we are dealing with the symptoms of an irritant cough, with no fever, no vomiting, and very little expectoration. Such expectoration is of a glistening or glairy character. The cough is severe at night, and milder during the day. As a rule, the appetite is poor, and the child shows nervous symptoms, such as irritability by day and restlessness at night. In some cases there is an intestinal catarrh associated, and the stool contains shreds of mucus.

In the spasmodic stage, usually the second or third week after an infection, the cough appears in spasms and ends in a "whoop." The cough is usually linked together and followed by a long inspiration which has a distinct "whoop." During this coughing paroxysm the face assumes a reddish or cyanotic appearance. Many paroxysms end in vomiting. Violent paroxysms frequently cause nose-bleeding or hæmoptysis. When the paroxysms have continued for a week or more, the face assumes a characteristic puffy appearance. An intense capillary congestion will frequently be seen on the skin and also by an examination of the conjunctival mucous membrane.

The paroxysmal stage may last from four to ten weeks, although I have seen severe cases in which a distinct "whoop" continued for six months. It is a good plan to count the number of paroxysms in twenty-four hours, and by comparison with the previous week we can judge of improvement, if the frequency of the spasm is lessened. Not infrequently 20 to 50 paroxysms may occur in twenty-four hours.

During a severe paroxysm, the forcible pushing forward of the tongue stretches the frenum and brings it into contact with the teeth, frequently resulting in ulceration.

The symptoms of the third stage, or stage of decline, correspond to those of the first stage, although there is extreme exhaustion from the force and frequency of the cough. From the inanition due to the vomiting and the loss of sleep caused by the paroxysmal cough, cardiac weakness must be expected. The heart sounds are feeble and muffled. A systolic blowing murmur is usually heard at the apex and may remain for many months. The pulse is small, low tension, and frequently irregular, owing to the heart strain. Owing to the disturbance of the circulation, in addition to the inanition, cold extremities are usually noted.

Diagnosis and Differential Diagnosis. In the early stage of pertussis it is quite difficult to differentiate it from bronchitis. An examination of the blood should be made, and if a marked lymphocytosis is present then the diagnosis is positive. If the cough is paroxysmal in character and most frequent at night, we should suspect pertussis. From the spasmodic nature of the disease the child's face will be extremely congested during a coughing paroxysm. Cases are reported in which pertussis has appeared a second time. Such authentic reports are by no means rare. I have seen recurring attacks of pertussis associated with the characteristic "whoop" and vomiting six months after the disease was apparently under control.

The frequency of the cough and the intensity of the spasm, which grows worse from day to day, is characteristic of whooping-cough. When a child with pertussis is taken into the fresh air the spasms as a rule are less marked.

If after exposure to a case of whooping-cough, fourteen days have elapsed, and no cough has developed, we can consider the child free from infection.

In New York City children suffering from whooping-cough are excluded from school until the whoop has entirely disappeared, which, generally speaking, means from six weeks to two months.

Complications.—The most frequent complication seen by me is bronchopneumonia. The prolonged duration of the cough and the bronchopneumonia frequently end in tuberculosis. Pleurisy with or without effusion is occasionally encountered. Atelectasis involving one or more lobes of the lung is occasionally seen in rickety children. The heart suffers because it is subjected to a severe strain. An irregular or intermitting pulse may frequently be noted because of the exhaustion from the frequency of the spells, the inanition resulting from vomiting, and the loss of sleep due to the cough. Emphysema is occasionally met with. Asphyxia is one of the dangers during continued paroxysms. When convulsions occur during the course of this disease the outcome is usually fatal. Paralysis has been described after a severe paroxysm. Such paralysis may be due to an intracranial hæmorrhage. The frequency of hæmorrhage from violent coughing paroxysms is one of the great dangers of this disease. Epistaxis is quite common. The sclera of both eyes is the seat of frequent hæmorrhages. Hæmoptysis and hæmatemesis are frequently noted. Cerebral hæmorrhage resulting in unilateral or bilateral paralysis is occasionally met with. Hemiplegia or paraplegia following pertussis must be looked upon as a very grave complication, although not necessarily fatal. Strabismus has been reported in this disease following a severe cerebral hæmorrhage. Loss of vision and partial or complete aphasia have been reported. Hæmaturia with and without nephritis is occasionally met with during the course of this disease. The functional derangement of the kidneys may be due to the long duration of the disease. Diabetes mellitus has been seen by me which persisted more than two years.

Prognosis and Course.—The outcome of any case depends on three factors: First, the proper nutrition of the body by frequent feeding. If food is ejected, then more food must be given. Second, the amount of rest obtained to restore the exhaustion from the violent coughing. Third, the prevention, if possible, of complications. If complications exist, such as an empyema, treatment should be instituted as though it were not a case of pertussis.

The course of the disease can be shortened by supporting the strength of the body with food and by aiding nature in securing rest at night.

Treatment.—*Medicinal:* There is no specific in the treatment of this disease. Phenacetin 2 to 5 grains, or antipyrin in the same dosage, repeated every two hours until relief is afforded, will modify the cough. For relief at night codein should be given liberally; 1/8 grain gradually increased to 1/4 grain may be given to a child 2 to 5 years old, and repeated every two to three hours until the cough lessens. Cautiously given, the dose of codein may gradually be increased until 1/2 to 3/4 grain per dose is given. No systemic disturbance will be noted.

Another valuable drug is sulphate of morphia; no more than 1/30 grain increased to 1/16 grain should be given every four hours to a child 2 to 5 years old. Great care should be exercised and the nurse invariably cautioned regarding the dangers of this drug.

Heroin in doses of 1/24 grain increased to 1/12 or 1/8 grain, may be repeated every four hours, in some palatable menstruum like syrup of Tolu.

If sleep is disturbed and the cough is severe, 5 to 10 grains of sodium bromide combined with 2 to 3 grains of chloral hydrate may be repeated every three hours.

Tussol, phenocoll, lactophenin, euchinine, pasterin, and antispasminin are drugs recommended by enthusiasts. They have been tried by me with indifferent results; in some cases they are of value, but in most cases useless.

Fischl, of Prag, strongly advises the inunction of antitussin by thorough massage into the thorax. This remedy owes its therapeutic value to the presence of fluorin vapors which are liberated. In addition thereto he recommends the oil of cypress, this aromatic oil to be dropped on the pillow at night, or on gauze worn around the neck by day.

Bromoform has served in very many cases, sometimes with marked benefit; in other cases no benefit was noted. The dose of bromoform is from 2 to 5 drops in syrup, three times a day. Belladonna and atropin have their advocates. Owing to the extreme dryness and the erythematous flush following the administration of belladonna, it must be used with caution. My results do not warrant recommending the same. Dionin (Merck), in doses of 1/50 to 1/25 grain cautiously increased, may be given every three hours to a 2-year-old child.

To relieve the distress caused by the coughing paroxysms, an abdominal support, very snug fitting, affords relief. In like manner a plaster bandage snugly applied around the ribs will give additional support to the thorax and frequently modify intense paroxysms. Strips of belladonna plaster encircling the chest may do some good. Such plaster may be left in position from several days to one week.

The injection of a vaccine prepared from the Bordet bacillus made by Dr. G. H. Sherman has many advocates.

Fresh Air.—The spasms can be shortened by keeping the child in the open air; the roof is the best place in a city. Such open-air treatment to be continued night and day during the mild weather. During stormy weather the windows should be kept wide open. In winter with the body properly clad the fresh, cool air will do more to restore the child's health than all drugs combined.

Food.—During the spasmodic stage the child's nutrition is lessened because of the frequent vomit. Small meals at frequent intervals are indicated. Yolk of egg in milk or orange juice, calf's foot or chicken jelly, raw scraped beef, custard, buttermilk, cheese, and ice-cream should form the bulk of the diet. My plan is to feed a portion of one or two of the above-named foods every two to three hours, thus giving ample nutrition.

Restoratives.—After the spasmodic stage subsides and the cough is lessened, Fowler's solution 2 to 5 drops should be given three times a day. Codliver oil each teaspoonful containing $^1/_{200}$ grain of phosphorus should be given three times a day after meals. If the oil is well borne it should be continued throughout the winter; if not, give Fellow's syrup of hypophosphites.

CHAPTER III.

PNEUMONIA (LOBAR OR CROUPOUS).

THIS acute infectious disease is frequently seen in infancy and childhood. It is caused by the invasion of a specific micro-organism, the pneumococcus; also known as the micrococcus lanceolatus. The disease rarely exists longer than from six to nine days. It terminates by crisis. It is a self-limited disease. In some cases it may terminate by lysis.

Etiology.—This disease most frequently exists in children between the ages of 5 and 10 years. Baginsky states that, among 173 pneumonias studied by him, he found the following:—

6 children less than 1 year old.
28 children between 1 and 2 years.
58 children between 2 and 5 years.
63 children between 5 and 10 years.
18 children between 10 and 14 years.

We find on studying the above cases that the greater number of pneumonias are found in children between the ages of 5 and 10 years. Schlesinger studied a series of cases of pneumonia and found that 96 cases affected the right lung as against 66 cases affecting the left lung. He also found on the right side of the lung:—

22 cases affecting the upper lobe.
7 cases affecting the middle lobe.
32 cases affecting the lower lobe.

On the left side of the lung:—

11 cases affecting the upper lobe.
0 cases affecting the middle lobe.
47 cases affecting the lower lobe.

Thus he found that the lower lobes on both sides of the lungs were more frequently affected than the upper lobes, and that the seat of pneumonia in children corresponded with the investigations of von Dusch, showing that the most frequent seat of pneumonia of the lobar variety is certainly found at the base of the lower lobe of the left lung. This is an important diagnostic point when symptoms point to the development of pneumonia.

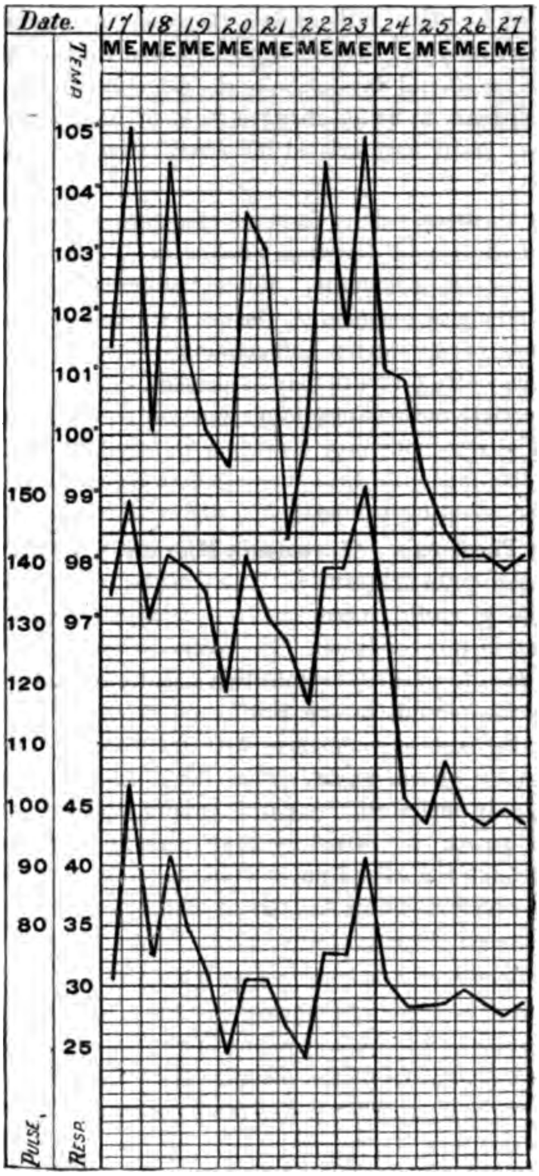

Fig. 149.—Case of Influenza and Pneumonia. The disease spread from lobe to lobe, so that the child passed through several distinct inflammations. This form is known as *Pneumonia Migrans* (*Wandering Type*). Careful dieting, aided by stimulation, and the fever treated by cold compresses and cold colon flushings aided recovery. (Original.)

Bacteriology.—The disease originates by an invasion of a specific micro-organism first described by A. Fraenkel. Other investigators, among them Klebs, Ziehl, and C. Friedlander, have found various micro-organisms in the lymph channels, and in the alveoli of pneumonic lungs. Some of these germs have been encapsulated. It remained, however, for Fraenkel to find the specific germ causing this disease. Weichselbaum was one of the first to prove the positive specific infection of the Fraenkel diplococcus. This diplococcus is found not only in the lungs, but frequently also in the meninges, in the nasal secretions from the nasal mucous membrane, and at times in the kidneys. Wherever this micro-organism is found there is usually an inflammatory condition resulting therefrom.

When this specific germ was injected into animals, pneumonia always resulted.

Pathology.—The infection is usually caused by the pneumococcus. In pleuro-pneumonia both the visceral and the parietal pleura are coated with a large layer of yellowish-green fibrin, in thick, shaggy masses, by which the lung is adherent to the chest-wall, the diaphragm, and the pericardium. The exudation varies between one-eighth and one-half inch in thickness. It can often be stripped from the lung or scraped from the chest-wall by the handful. In its meshes small pockets may form, which contain only a few drops or sometimes a drachm of pus, or, less frequently, serum. This is the condition in which the lung is usually found when death has occurred at the height of the disease. If the process has lasted longer, larger collections of pus may be present. The lung itself shows the usual changes of pneumonia, and if there has been any considerable accumulation of fluid there are in addition the evidences of compression.

With pleuro-pneumonia of the left side, the pericardium is occasionally involved. This was seen in two of my cases, the lesions closely resembling those of the pleura. In two cases there was also meningitis, and in one peritonitis, the exudation in all cases having the same characteristics (Holt).

There are four stages which have an important bearing on the progress and on the outcome of this disease: first, the stage of congestion; second, the stage of red hepatization; third, the stage of gray hepatization, and, fourth, the stage of defervescence or resolution.

VARIETIES OF PNEUMONIA.

Abortive Pneumonia.—This form of pneumonia is frequently disbelieved by some clinical observers. At times children who are in apparent good health will suddenly have intense fever, cough, and on physical examination show distinct symptoms of pneumonia. Frequently dullness on percussion in addition to bronchial breathing will be plainly made out. In two, possibly three days, the whole clinical picture will be changed and the

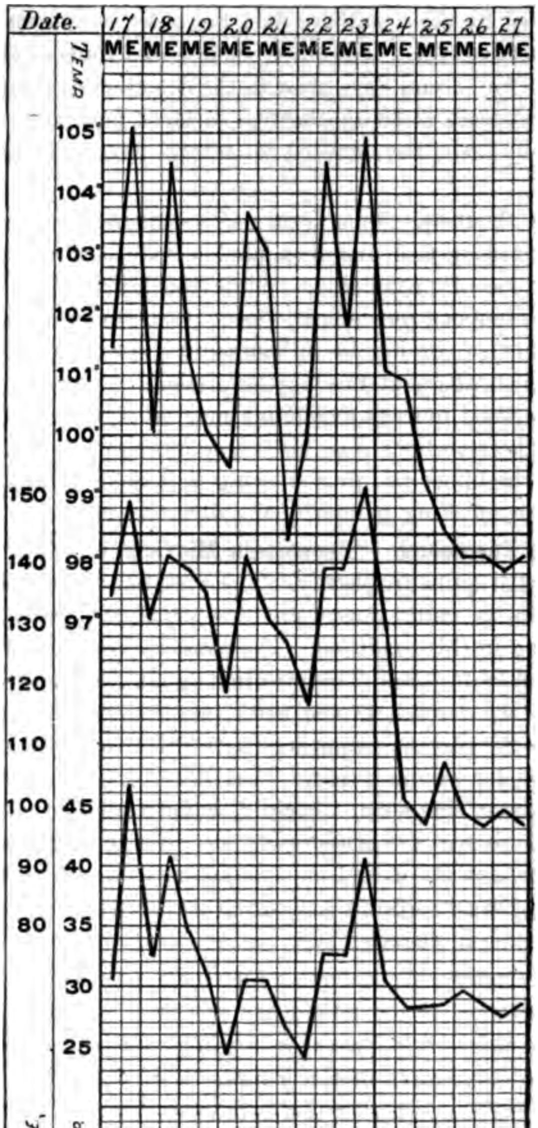

Fig. 149.—Case of Influenza and Pneumonia. The disease spread from lobe to lobe, so that the child passed through several distinct inflammations. This form is known as *Pneumonia Migrans* (*Wandering Type*). Careful dieting, aided by stimulation, and the fever treated by cold compresses and cold colon flushings aided recovery. (Original.)

child will appear to be normal. This form of pneumonia has been recognized and studied by other authors, but Baginsky maintains that the disease is of the abortive type. It is quite possible that some of these symptoms have been latent for several days prior to the detection of the physical signs, and thus what appears to be an abortive form of pneumonia covering two or three days may easily have existed for several days prior to the detection of the same.

Pneumonia Gastrica.—This form of the disease is one in which the symptoms of vomiting and diarrhœa predominate, and hence it is known as the gastric type of pneumonia. While the lungs will show the usual symptoms of a croupous pneumonia, the tongue, stomach, and bowels will present symptoms of an intense inflammatory condition of the digestive tract. Not infrequently jaundice may be present.

The conjunctival mucous membrane may be pigmented from the presence of bile. The secretions may also show biliary pigmentation. Herpes may appear on the upper lip, thus showing that there is an intense inflammatory condition affecting primarily the digestive tract.

Wandering Pneumonia ("Pneumonia Migrans").—This form of pneumonia is met with quite frequently. The symptoms are those common to lobar pneumonia, as chills, fever, and the usual physical symptoms of a consolidated lung in this condition. The name is derived from its tendency to spread from lobe to lobe. The infection usually commences in one lobe and spreads to the second, to the third, and frequently when the crisis has taken place the disease commences with full force in another lobe and may continue so for several weeks. That this form of pneumonia is very serious can be easily imagined. A child, having suffered with acute lobar pneumonia and passed its crisis with an already weakened heart, has again to pass through the second pneumonia and frequently through a third and a fourth, and must certainly have great vitality in order to recover from the depression caused thereby.

Pleuro-pneumonia.--It is rare to find lobar pneumonia without an associated inflammation of the pulmonary pleura. Not infrequently with a severe type of broncho-pneumonia covering large areas of consolidation there is a coexisting inflammation of the pleura. It is difficult to state at times which lesion began first, whether it was the pleurisy or the pneumonia, in a given case of pleuro-pneumonia.

Cerebral Pneumonia.- This type of the disease is one which is very frequently met with in which the symptoms of pneumonia are chiefly complicated by meningeal symptoms; thus clonic spasms or convulsions are usually present. In addition thereto there is vomiting, constipation, headache, opisthotonos, delirium, stupor, irregularity of the pulse, and, later on in the disease, coma. In some cases paralysis is liable to occur.

Symptoms and Course.—The disease is usually ushered in with convulsions. At times vomiting and diarrhœa may be the first symptoms noticed. Chills are very rarely seen in children. The cheeks are usually very red and show the characteristic flush so well known in adult pneumonia. The respirations are increased, the pulse is accelerated, and the temperature rises. One of the most important diagnostic points and one upon which I lay great stress is the *"ratio between the pulse and respiration."* Normally the ratio is 1 to 4, and when this ratio is increased, as, for example, when there are 60 respirations and 140 pulse beats, then the ratio of 1 to 4, which normally existed, is certainly disturbed. By this disturbed ratio alone we can frequently make a diagnosis by the process of exclusion. Especially is this true in those cases of "central pneumonia" in which the disease develops in the center of the lung and gradually spreads toward the periphery. When such central pneumonia exists, the physical signs will be so masked that bronchial breathing will be hardly discernible. The temperature will suddenly rise to 102°, 103°, and frequently to 105° F. The temperature in rachitic children will sometimes rise to 106° and 107° F. It is this class of cases that shows the most severe form of depression from irritation of the thermic centers. In these rachitic children we usually note that the invasion of pneumonia begins with a convulsion or a series of convulsions.

Children old enough will frequently complain of abdominal pains. Thus we must not be misled by gastric or gastro-intestinal symptoms until we can exclude the lungs as the seat of the disease. The physical sign most commonly associated with this disease is dullness on percussion over the affected area of the lung. In addition thereto there will be bronchial breathing. If the child cries, a loud bronchophony will be heard. There will also be an increased vocal fremitus. These symptoms usually remain the same for a few days, although they may increase in intensity.

Between the sixth and the ninth day, rarely earlier and very rarely later, a crisis takes place, in which the temperature will suddenly drop to normal. The patient will be covered with a profuse perspiration; the pulse, which formerly was full, bounding and accelerated, will be found smaller and less frequent. The former flush which existed will give place to a distinct pallor of the skin, and the observing physician will note a decided change in the patient. This condition, known as the crisis, may come on suddenly or gradually. In some cases the fever drops slowly—*i.e.*, by lysis—until normal is reached.

Pulse.—The pulse-rate is one which is a very important factor in connection with this disease. While it may be 120 and be quite regular in action, it is not uncommon to find the pulse-rate 140, and even 160. The frequency of the pulse is not as important a factor in determining the progress of this disease as is the character of the pulse. Thus, to illustrate, if a pulse is not frequent, but is weak and arrhythmic, such a patient should be regarded as in imminent danger and requiring very frequent and careful stimulation. A condition of collapse may be looked for in such a patient, and treatment directed to the prevention of the same is indicated. If the pulse-rate has been 120, and it suddenly increases to 140 or more, then some complication must be suspected and the child carefully examined to determine the cause of this sudden increase of the pulse-rate.

Respiration.—The whole respiratory condition is superficial and seems to call the accessory respiratory muscles into play. When the respiration is above 40 per minute, the diagnosis is usually very positive.

Lack of Expansion.—A lack of expansion may also be noticed. It involves the whole of the affected side and is not limited to the subclavicular region. In pneumonia this lack of expansion in the subclavicular region is marked, even though the inflammatory process is situated at the base. It can be observed as early as the first day, and lasts throughout the entire course of the disease. This early appearance of the sign is of especial importance, since the physical signs of involvement of the lung are so frequently delayed in cases of infantile pneumonia.

The sign is best elicited in the dorsal position, and is easily seen on the exposed chest in quick respiration.

One writer says he has recognized by this sign alone pneumonia occurring in a supposed case of appendicitis, and also has discovered pneumonia complicating typhoid and influenza.

The Temperature.—A rise of temperature usually implies the invasion of the specific micro-organism and hence is one of the earliest symptoms of this disease. It usually rises from 102° to 105° F., and remains so until the crisis. There is, however, a morning remission; thus we find the temperature about one degree lower in the morning than we do in the evening. In pneumonia we frequently find a condition known as the "procrisis." This procritical stage exists one day before the crisis, as a rule. The temperature will suddenly fall to normal on the day preceding the crisis. It has a valuable prognostic significance, showing that the inflammatory stage has now terminated;

In Pleuro-pneumonia.—*Symptoms:* The friction sound is the characteristic feature throughout. In addition to the pleuritic friction sounds, the symptoms of pneumonia, such as bronchial breathing and bronchophony, are found. There is marked dullness and frequently flatness on percussion. This condition is sometimes misleading. Not infrequently the signs of distant breathing and flatness on percussion, in addition to a continuous high temperature, will simulate an empyema. An exploratory needle introduced may strike a small pocket of pus and thus an empyema may be suspected. These cases, if operated, frequently show nothing but the ordinary signs of adhesions so common at this stage of the disease.

The Blood in Pneumonia.—Baginsky maintains that the examination of the blood will show the progress of this disease, and he believes that the leucocytosis so common in this disease has an important bearing on the prognosis of this condition. Felsenthal and Schlesinger, also Monti, Berggrün, and Loos, have found that there is an increase of the polynuclear cells, whereas the eosinophile cells disappear. When the temperature returns to normal during the crisis in pneumonia, the leucocytosis which formerly existed also disappears. Thus, some authors speak of a "blood crisis."

The Urine.—This is frequently high-colored and very scanty, especially so during the height of the disease. It also has a very high specific gravity and frequently contains albumin. Acetone can also frequently be found in the urine. The albumin frequently disappears after the crisis. The phosphates seem increased, though some authors maintain that they are decreased during the progress of this inflammatory type of disease. The diazo reaction is only found in that form of pneumonia which seems to have a typhoid tendency. Indican is very rarely or never found unless there is some form of intestinal putrefactive complication.

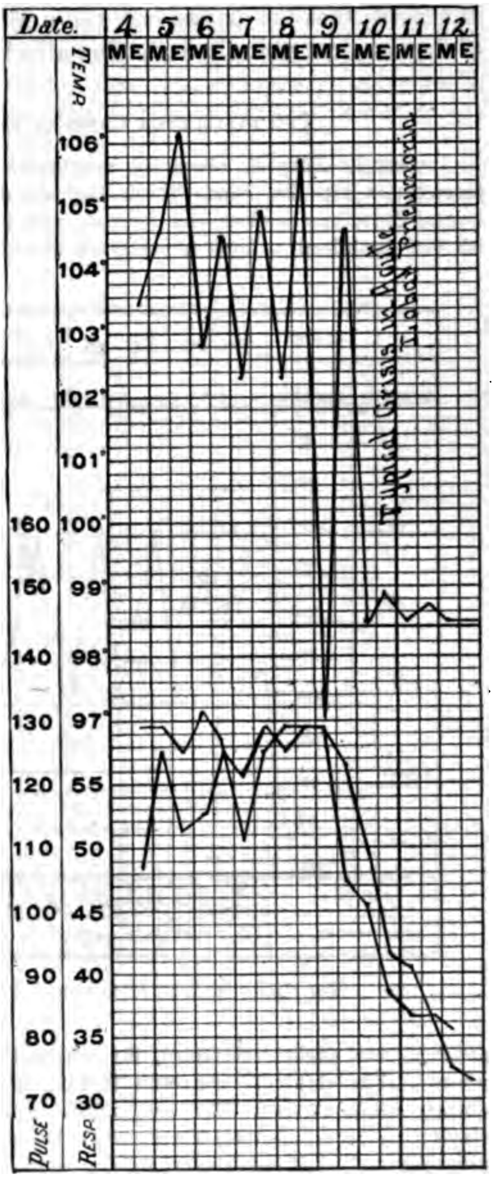

Fig. 150.—Lobar Pneumonia of a Severe Type, seen by me in consultation with Dr. S. M. Landsmann. The effect of the poison is easily seen by studying the pulse-rate. Case Recovered. (Original.)

Relapse.—It is not infrequent to have one and the same area of lung reinvaded; thus the disease may run a second course over the same portion of the lung just as it did in the first attack.

TWO INSTRUCTIVE CASES OF CEREBRAL PNEUMONIA.

CASE I.—Baby E., about six months old, a nursing baby, was seen by me in consultation with Dr. Osias. The history was as follows: The child had been ill for several days, was restless and feverish, and had vomited. The stools were greenish and contained a large quantity of cheesy curds, in addition to mucus. The abdomen was slightly retracted, the extremities were cold; there was no œdema present. The child did not seem to take the breast very well and vomited frequently after nursing. The temperature was $102\frac{4}{5}$° F., per rectum, pulse 140, respiration 44. Unilateral spasms with twitchings of the muscles of the shoulder, arm, leg, and foot were constantly present. Twitchings of the muscles of the eye and a constant rolling of the eyeball were noticed; the head was thrown backward; the muscles of the neck were rather rigid, although there was no distinct opisthotonos. The spasms were confined to the right side of the body; the knee-jerk at the patella was absent on the right side; the plantar reflex on the right side was slightly present; the patellar reflex was normal on the left side and the plantar reflex was more distinct; the pupils responded very sluggishly and were unusually large; this dilatation of the pupils persisted through the whole illness, until con-

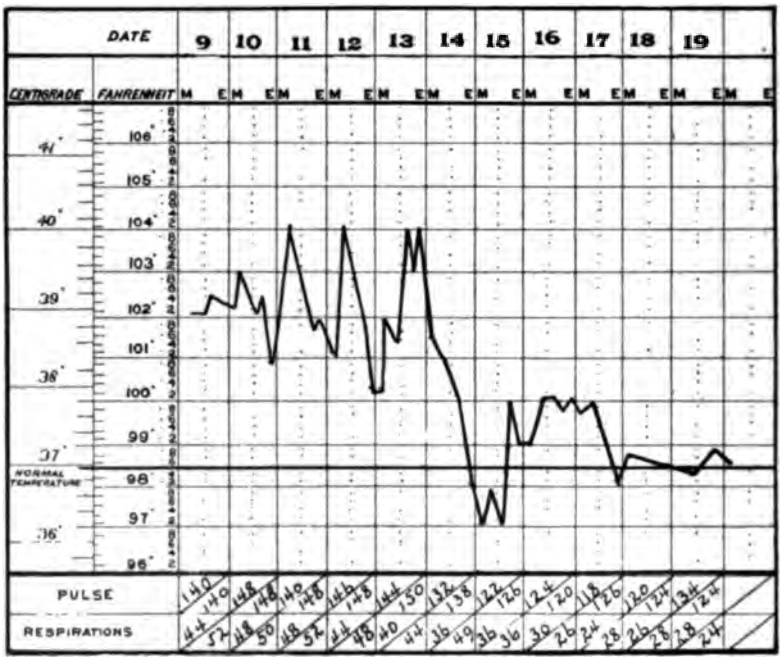

Fig. 151.—A Case of Cerebral Pneumonia. (Original.)

valescence was established. The examination of the thorax showed intense pulmonary congestion; there was slight resistance on percussion and marked dullness. Judging from the ratio between the pulse and the respiration, the diagnosis of pneumonia was hardly possible. The physical signs on auscultation showed bronchial breathing and a distinct crepitant râle. The diagnosis of cerebral pneumonia was made, although meningitis *per se* was excluded.

The treatment was directed to relieve the pneumonic infection. Expectorants, in addition to inhalations of steam, were ordered. Cold compresses were used as antipyretics, and castor-oil or calomel was given to cleanse the gastro-intestinal tract. The disease progressed; the temperature increased and rose to $103^{4}/_{5}$° F.

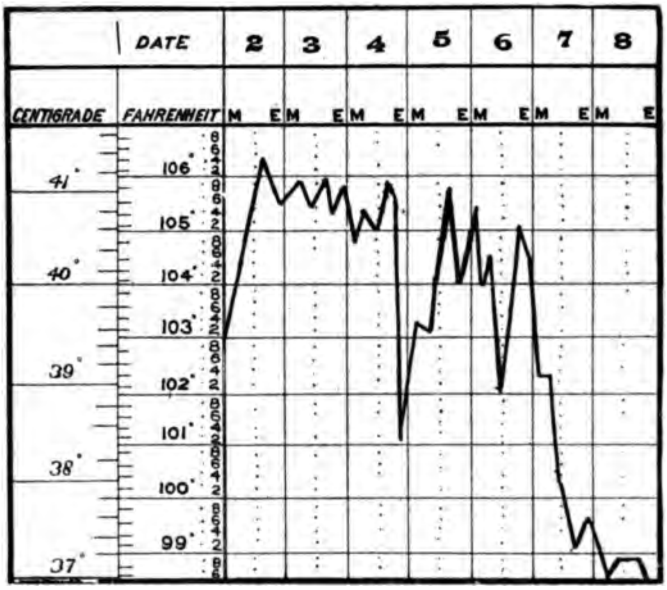

Fig. 152.—Cerebral Pneumonia with High Temperature and Marked Decrease in Temperature After Cold Baths. (Original.)

on the following day, and to $104^{2}/_{5}$° F. on the third and fourth days. With the rise of temperature the pulse-rate was increased to 140, respirations to 52. On the fifth day of the disease there was a marked somnolence, stupor and partial coma. The head now showed a distinct opisthotonos; the sterno-cleido-mastoids were very rigid; the pupils were both dilated and the convulsions continued as before. Leeches were applied over the mastoid portion of the temporal bone to relieve the cerebral congestion; the scalp was shaved and iodoform collodion, 10 per cent., was painted on the occiput; ice-bags were applied over the whole of the cranium as well as to the nape of the neck; mustard foot-baths were frequently given and afforded some relief during the severe spasms. An enema consisting of chloral hydrate and sodium bromide, 5 grains each, with 1 ounce of starch water, was ordered. This was to be repeated every three hours until the spasms ceased. Before injecting the above drugs both the rectum and the colon were flushed with soap-water enema.

On the seventh day of the disease there was a distinct crisis, inasmuch as the temperature dropped from 104° to 97°, a drop of 7 degrees. (Fig. 154.) Stimulating expectorants were then ordered in the following manner:—

℞ Ammon. carb.	15 grains
Syrup. pruni virgin	4 drachms
Aquæ camph. q. s. ad	2 ounces

M. Half a teaspoonful every two hours.

The child's convalescence continued. The pneumonia completely subsided; resolution set in; the spasms, which had been so disagreeable and persistent, also stopped. The child commenced to show signs of consciousness, played, laughed, and cooed; the stools, which had been so greenish and curdled, assumed a more natural yellowish color and pasty consistency. The appetite seemed to return; the infant nursed better, the nights were more comfortable, and the child slept from one feeding time until the next.

CASE II.—Hannah T., 7 years old, was taken sick with fever, complained of being tired, and was very thirsty. She had anorexia and was inclined to constipation. She also complained of headaches. When first seen by me her temperature was 103.4° F. in the mouth, the pulse 168, respiration 34. She had a very coated tongue; the throat was dry; there were no patches visible. There was no history of exposure to contagious diseases; a gastric catarrh was suspected. The respiration and pulse ratio suggested a pulmonary complication.

The physical examination of the thorax gave no evidence of consolidation, merely roughened, harsh breathing, some rhonchi and slight resistance on percussing the right apex anteriorly. No diagnosis except "fever" was made. I ordered calomel 1 grain with powdered rhubarb 3 grains. Citrate of magnesia was given for the thirst. A fluid diet, consisting of equal parts of Seltzer and milk, with sponging of the chest with alcohol and water every hour, and cool cloths, moistened with evaporating lotions like bay rum or Florida water, to the forehead were also ordered.

I examined a specimen of urine which contained nothing abnormal. On the following morning, twelve hours after my first visit, the temperature by rectum was 104.4° F., pulse 172, respiration 68 while asleep. The bowels had been thoroughly cleaned, still there was no evidence of pneumonia, but the child seemed to be greatly depressed. There was marked apathy; the child was very restless and had not slept. Constant twitchings of the muscles of the face and extremities occurred; the child cried out while in the stupor, refused food, attempted to bite and screamed loudly. The patellar reflexes were both present, the pupils reacted normally, the head was not retracted nor were the muscles rigid. There was no opisthotonos; the child could be roused by loud talking, or by being touched. The temperature in the evening was 106.2° F. by rectum, the pulse 124, respiration 40. One drop doses of tincture of aconite were given every hour for eight hours and had no effect on the temperature, but did seem to reduce the pulse-rate and steady the heart's action.

The cold pack was ordered, to be renewed every half-hour until the temperature dropped to 102° F. Freshly prepared spiritus mindererus, one-half teaspoonful every half-hour until the temperature remained at 102° F., was also ordered. Warm mustard foot baths were ordered to stimulate the circulation, and whisky with milk (ʒj to ℥iv), whenever possible. No distinct evidences of pneumonia were obtained on auscultation or percussion.

The temperature continued to rise, until 106° F. was reached. Dry cups were applied over the posterior portion of the lungs; also an ice-cap to the head. Colon flushings with water at a temperature of 60° F. were also ordered, to be repeated every three hours. These seemed to have a very soothing effect on the nervous system. The child was much quieter after them and the temperature was gradually reduced.

Frequently after a cool tub bath, combined with a cold pack, the temperature dropped three to four degrees. (Fig. 153.) Creosote carbonate, in 3-drop doses, was ordered every three hours, to be given in milk, soup or chocolate. This dose was increased gradually by the addition of one drop each day, until the child received ten drops every four hours. No systemic disturbance was noticed, there was no discoloration of the urine and no toxic symptoms resulted from the creosote treatment. A decided antithermic effect without cardiac depression was noticed. (A convenient way of giving the creosote is to add the drops to some Tokay wine or to combine it with whisky and water.) The mustard foot-baths given daily acted as a valuable antipyretic.

Creosote steam inhalations were also ordered. Beechwood creosote, about a teaspoonful to a pint of boiling water, was permitted to steam on a table several feet from the patient. This powerful vapor soon impregnated the air, so that the creosote could be smelt throughout the whole apartment. It certainly acted very well, not only on the temperature, but also in loosening viscid secretion.

The vital point in the treatment consisted in giving a supporting diet of eggs beaten up with sugar and Tokay wine, concentrated soups, and milk predigested with peptonizing powder. Malt extract was given as a restorative and also for its diastasic effect. The treatment was continued until the child's temperature remained normal for several days, when all forms of creosote were discontinued.

It is interesting to note that very great depression of the nervous system, violent twitchings of the muscles, and talking aloud while asleep continued for several weeks after convalescence was established. The child slept at least twenty hours out of the twenty-four for fully one week. It was at times difficult to arouse her to take nourishment. This great stupor was evidently due to the profound toxæmia which existed. The urine, which was frequently examined, showed an excess of phosphates, gave a strong diazo reaction, contained neither albumin nor sugar. The child was discharged after eight weeks and is in good health to-day.

The following symptoms were the most noteworthy in the cases reported:—

(*a*) Unilateral spasms, twitchings of the muscles of the shoulder and the arm, and of the leg and foot, were constantly present. (*b*) Twitchings of the muscles of the eye and a constant rolling of the eyeball. (*c*) The head was thrown backward. (*d*) The patellar reflex was absent on the affected side. (*e*) The plantar reflex was slight on the affected side. (*f*) Distinct evidences of pneumonia, bronchial breathing and marked dullness on percussion. (*g*) Convulsions and marked stupor later in the disease. (*h*) When the crisis appeared in the pneumonia, the cerebral symptoms subsided. (*i*) Marked nervous depression and extreme hyperæsthesia of the body, which continued for weeks after all inflammatory symptoms had subsided.

Schlesinger, in studying this disease, noted that it existed chiefly in children between the third and sixth years.

In acute apical pneumonia we usually note cerebral symptoms due to the irritation of the cervical ganglion. These symptoms subside with the crisis of pneumonia. They must not be confounded with meningitis, which is a distinct disease, although a frequent complication of pneumonia.

Diagnosis. The diagnosis of pneumonia is easy when the physical symptoms of dullness on percussion, bronchial breathing, moist râles, and bronchophony are shown. These symptoms are not always present and are frequently absent during the first few days of the disease. The diagnosis can be made by the disturbed ratio between pulse and respiration, as previously noted. In addition thereto, the peculiar character of the respiration, added to the cough, will certainly aid in establishing the diagnosis. The vital point to remember is that, normally, bronchial breathing is heard posteriorly between the scapulæ and also in the regio supraspinata dextra. We must also remember that dullness on percussion appears somewhat higher on the right side posteriorly in the lower lobe than on the left side. The positive diagnosis can therefore only be made by noting the physical signs in the lungs and excluding the symptoms pointing to a gastric catarrh, to a typhoid fever or a meningitis.

Atelectasis pulmonum can easily be differentiated from pneumonia by the absence of fever and by the marked difference in the dullness on percussion and usually by the absence of bronchial breathing. When fever recurs after it has apparently terminated, some complication must be suspected. Symptoms pointing to a pleuritic effusion are dullness on percussion and diminished respiratory murmur over the affected area. Gangrene of the lungs can usually be detected by the odor of the breath and the associated condition of collapse. If the condition assumes a chronic type and is associated with headache and fever, and if the child, in addition, commences to emaciate, then we may suspect the development of tuberculosis. To render such diagnosis positive, some of the sputum or expectoration should be examined for the presence of tubercle bacilli, the presence of which will establish the diagnosis. The absence of tubercle bacilli in the sputum does not necessarily mean that tuberculosis is absent.

The Prognosis. The prognosis of croupous pneumonia is relatively good. Out of 153 cases reported by Baginsky, of Berlin, 4 per cent. died. These latter children were very poorly nourished.

Fatal cases may be expected in bottle fed infants rather than in breast-fed infants. An abnormal developed thorax, so common in rickets, has an important bearing on the prognosis of this disease. Pigeon-breasted and narrow chested infants, having an improperly developed lung space, are more prone to a fatal termination.

The development of symptoms of tuberculosis [illegible] of the lung, or the extension of a pneumonia and the continuation of the same, will mean a [illegible] heart's action and [illegible] recuperative [illegible]. The greater [illegible] patient's [illegible] stomach." [illegible] and [illegible]

Treatment.[1]—The most important symptoms to be remembered in the treatment of this disease are the condition of the heart, the pulse-rate, the respirations, the temperature, and the condition of the kidneys, to be noted by the quantity and the quality of the urine secreted.

Isolate the Child.—As lobar pneumonia is an acute infectious disease caused by the invasion of the pneumococcus, it is transmissible. Our first duty is to isolate. A case of pneumonia should be isolated as strictly as a case of diphtheria. All healthy persons should be excluded, be they friends or family. It is best to let them know that this disease can be disseminated.

In the treatment of pneumonia we must remember that toxæmia and high temperature will produce degeneration of the muscular fiber of the heart, which, if prolonged, will result in heart-failure. Hence our treatment must be directed to lowering the temperature and to control the inflammatory process before stagnation of the blood and hepatization have taken place, thus aiming to retain the integrity of the respiratory tract.

Any interference with the proper action of the respiratory apparatus leads to overloading and ultimate failure of the right side of the heart. Hence we must seek to keep up the respiratory pump by lessening the frequency and increasing the depth of the respirations.

A great many cases will get well without treatment. This is called the "self-limited" condition. The disease simply runs its course, and if the patient is properly fed, strengthened, and guarded, a favorable termination may be expected. On the other hand, there are certain symptoms which demand treatment. For example, hyperpyrexia will require treatment, especially so as the continuation of the same may be the means of developing disturbances resulting in convulsions. My preference has always been for the use of cold externally. If cyanosis exists then warm flaxseed poultices may be tried.

The sudden application of cold externally causes a deep inspiration and consequent forcing of air through the alveoli, thus preventing atelectasis. The air surrounding the child should be kept moist with steam from a teakettle having a long spout directed toward the child (Fig. 134).

The following case was attended by me in the babies' ward of the New York Post-Graduate Hospital:—

Child F. A., 5 years old. My attention was called on August 12th to a temperature of $99^2/_5$° F., which rose to $104^3/_5$° F., by 8.30 the following evening. Percussion showed dullness over a complete lobe of the left lung, bronchial breathing, cough, no expectoration. The respiration rose from 36 in the morning to 50 in the evening, and the pulse from 120 to 130 per minute. Until the diagnosis was positive the child was put on the expectant plan of treatment. The temperature rose to 105° F. on the second day, in spite of sponge baths consisting of equal parts of alcohol and water. After a few hours the temperature rose to its former height, sometimes going beyond that, prior to the sponge bath.

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[1] For vaccine treatment, see "Bacterial Vaccines."

In order then to have a more lasting effect, it was deemed necessary to give the tub baths, that is, to immerse the child from the neck to the feet in water of about 90° F. and then add ice until the temperature of the bath is 70° F. The child was kept in the bath from two to five minutes.

The first tub bath brought the temperature from $104^{3}/_{5}$° F. to 100° F. This drop lasted about two hours. The temperature did not rise more than two degrees until the following afternoon at 4 P.M., when it reached $104^{4}/_{5}$° F. This is a natural course in a severe pneumonia. The second tub bath had the effect of lowering the temperature from $104^{4}/_{5}$° F. to $101^{1}/_{5}$° F., a decrease of $3^{3}/_{5}$° F. in one hour.

On the 19th of August, the eighth day of the disease, the temperature reached $104^{3}/_{5}$° F. at 6 P.M. A tub bath given brought the temperature to 103° F. at 7 P.M., a fall of $1^{3}/_{5}$° F. in one hour. This same temperature continued until 9 P.M., after which it began to fall, reaching normal on the following day, the ninth day of disease. The boy was discharged cured. He was entirely well when I last heard of him.

In the above case true symptomatic treatment was carried out. The severe cough received an expectorant with an anodyne (codeine) when necessary to relieve pain. Bowels and bladder were carefully watched. Stimulants given when required —no antipyretics. Diluted milk and whey, every three hours. Cool water whenever thirsty.

Drug Treatment.—When high fever persists in a weakened child with very low resisting power, such fever must be reduced. The child's system must be carefully watched while fever is in progress. One child will tolerate a temperature of 105° F., laugh and play, and take its food regularly, while another child in a similar pulmonary condition will show extensive cerebral irritation, somnolence, tremor, twitching of the muscles, and possibly convulsions at a temperature of 103° or 104° F. In the latter instance it shows that the poison from the pneumococcus infection has overwhelmed the nerve centers governing heat production, and in such instances, when decided nervous or cerebral symptoms present themselves, "a reduction of temperature is demanded," or we must not be surprised to see convulsions set in, with probably a fatal termination.

How Shall We Reduce the Temperature in Children?—When we consider that antipyretic drugs depress the nerve centers governing heat production and increase the work of the emunctories, already loaded down by poison brought to them for elimination, it can be seen that their use is contraindicated. Those who believe in phagocytosis may be reminded that antipyretics arrest the development of leucocytosis, and thus remove one of the means of destroying the germs of the disease, according to one theory, or the antitoxin generated or developed, according to another (Hobart A. Hare).

Jacubowitsch and Muller and many others have proved conclusively that antipyrine decreases the elimination of urea by the urine. It also decreases the urinary flow, which is a very harmful effect, when we consider the great importance of eliminating effete matter from the body.

That antipyretics depress the heart's action is only too well known; therefore, rather than to combine them with musk, camphor, or other cardiac stimulants, I have discarded them.

Lactophenin, antipyrine, phenacetin, salol, salipyrine, and quinine are among the more common antipyretic measures used as indicated, but, as they are cardiac depressants, must be cautiously prescribed. The tincture of aconite, in 1-minim doses, repeated every hour, has a remarkably good effect on this disease. In addition thereto, spirits of mindererus in half-teaspoonful doses, repeated every hour, will have a very good diaphoretic effect. Dover's powder will relieve cough and will also aid diaphoresis.

For difficult breathing nothing will serve as well as local depletion. For this purpose the application of dry cups over the affected areas of the lung will afford in some instances immediate relief. Dry cupping may be repeated every hour in severe dyspnœa if necessary. Tincture of iodine applied locally over the area of the lung affected will also be advantageous in some instances. If the pain is severe in pleuro-pneumonia, strapping the chest with strips of adhesive plaster will support the ribs and relieve the cough.

If convulsions persist an ice-bag applied over the head and also at the nape of the neck will be very valuable.

I frequently use one or two leeches applied over the mastoid process of the temporal bone and permit very free bleeding. This is especially indicated when there is intense engorgement of the brain with marked stupor and coma. We can frequently *relieve congestion* by the application of leeches to the alæ nasi. A simple but most effective remedy is the use of mustard foot-baths frequently given.

To relieve the cerebral hyperæmia, calomel in $^1/_{10}$-grain doses, and increased, may be repeated until liquid stools have been produced. It is one of our most valuable remedies and should be used at the onset of a suspected pneumonia. Attention to the stomach and bowels will frequently be the means of saving the life of the patient. I insist upon a loose condition of the bowels, and if the same cannot be produced by the administration of calomel, then an enema should be given by flushing the colon as often as once in twelve hours to cleanse the parts. When children are old enough, then one of the most valuable remedies is to give copious drinks of citrate of magnesia. This will not only quench the thirst, but will act as a laxative, and in addition thereto stimulate the secretion of urine. We find, therefore, that the emunctories require especial stimulation and attention during the course of lobar pneumonia.

In no disease is strychnine more valuable than during the course of pneumonia. Very small doses of only $^1/_{200}$ or $^1/_{100}$ grain, repeated every hour, may be given without fear during the progress of this disease. The question of stimulation is one of individuality. Each case must be treated on its own merits and the individual condition studied. When the heart's action is feeble and the pulse is thready, whisky must be given. In some cases five to thirty drops of good whisky may be given as often as every half-hour until the pulse responds to the stimulant. I frequently combine strychnine with whisky. In other cases champagne in half-drachm or drachm doses will be found far more effectual. Some children object to the taste of whisky or champagne, but will take a sweetened wine. In such cases give good, old Tokay in half-drachm doses as often as is required. When there is an aversion to the taking of medicine or if the child rebels against stimulation by the mouth and it is urgently called for, then half a teacupful of hot water, temperature of 100° F. to 105° F., to which a teaspoonful of either whisky or alcohol is added, may be thrown into the colon by means of a colon tube. When inanition exists, as in the septic type of pneumonia, the Murphy drip, using normal saline solution, is indicated. Hypodermic medication must not be overlooked, and frequently it is wise to use whisky, ether, or spirits of camphor. A valuable method of giving camphor hypodermically is by injecting camphorated oil, from 5 to 15 minims. Musk is one of our best cardiac stimulants, and if the pulse-rate is feeble it may be given in 1- to 5- drop doses, repeated in three or four hours, if necessary.

Hygienic Treatment: Room Temperature.—One of the most important factors is the regulation of the temperature of the room. Every child having a pneumonia should be put into a room having a temperature of 65° to 70° F. An equable temperature should be maintained, as the same is very grateful during the febrile stage of this disease. Fresh air should always be admitted.

Oxygen.—When severe dyspnœa occurs and if cyanosis exists, then oxygen inhalations may be required. Under these conditions several respirations should be given every few minutes until the lips lose their cyanotic appearance and again have their natural color.

Sponge Baths.—The surface of the body should be sponged with tepid water every day. Equal parts of alcohol and water are grateful to the patient, and should be used every hour if the temperature requires it. If, however, the temperature is not high, then a sponge bath to which a little alcohol has been added will be grateful, and may be given every morning and evening.

Another valuable means of reducing the temperature is by sponging every hour with acetic ether. This must be cautiously used, owing to its volatile and inflammable tendencies.

The Oil-silk Jacket.—This jacket is valuable when we desire a diaphoretic effect. It also prevents the chilling of the surface of the lung by maintaining a uniform temperature. The details of making this jacket can be found in the article on "Broncho-pneumonia," page 431.

Dietetic Treatment.—As previously stated, the prognosis in this condition depends on the amount of food the patient will take. A milk diet should be prescribed. Buttermilk, kumyss, zoolak, rice and milk, farina and milk, oatmeal and milk, and cold foods, such as cornstarch pudding, rice pudding, and tapioca pudding, are very grateful. If the child is very thirsty and is over 2 years old, ice cream may be permitted very sparingly. This is very grateful to the little patient, and if made from fresh cream is very nutritious. Concentrated soups, chicken broth, and veal broth may be permitted. So also calf's foot jelly, chicken jelly, albumin in the form of raw white of egg, to which some sugar is added, may be given. A soft-boiled egg or raw yolk of egg with sugar may also be given.

The interval between each feeding must be prolonged, owing to the subnormal condition of the digestive tract. If children are fed from the bottle, or if they are nursing babies, then they should be fed with a longer interval than previous to the time of this illness; for example, if the infant has been given the breast every three hours, it is a good rule to extend the nursing time to three and one-half or four hours, if it is possible. In this manner we will not only aid in the assimilation of the food, but frequently prevent stagnation of milk which had been previously taken.

Night Feeding.—The rule which governs the feeding of healthy children cannot be applied to children suffering with pneumonia. During the febrile stage large quantities of liquids are demanded. In order to overcome the cardiac depression good nourishment is indicated. A nursling suffering with pneumonia should be given the breast several times during the night. Bottle-fed infants may also receive some nutrition every three or four hours during the night. A favorable termination in this disease can only be expected when the depressed vitality is stimulated by nutrition.

TUBERCULOUS PNEUMONIA.

There are four pathological conditions which illustrate the various stages of the disease; they are: first, a bronchitis with rhonchi scattered through the chest; second, small areas of consolidation or partial consolidation; third, complete consolidation with bronchial breathing, dull areas on percussion; fourth, excavation with cavernous or amphoric breathing.

In its early stages the disease resembles broncho-pneumonia.

Cavities are frequently found post-mortem. They are difficult to find in children under 3 years of age. On the other hand, children over 8 or 9 years have cavities which can be recognized as early as in the adult.

Holt states that "the reason why in infancy cavities are so seldom recognized during life, is because they are generally small, often centrally located, nearly always filled with thick pus or cheesy matter, and rarely communicate freely with the bronchi. On the other hand, it is very common to find signs in young children which, if heard in adults, would be regarded as almost positive evidence of a cavity although none is present. These signs are cracked-pot resonance and cavernous breathing. They are not usually due to bronchiectasis, since this condition belongs to chronic cases, and especially to older children, but most frequently to consolidation about a large bronchus superficially situated, viz.: below the clavicle, high in the axilla, and in the interscapular region. The wide area over which this broncho-cavernous breathing is heard is one of the most striking points of difference from the signs of a cavity."

Course.—There are two types of cases: First, rapid cases or those terminating very quickly; second, those assuming a chronic course (protracted cases).

1. *The Rapid Type.*—The pathological process is a bronchitis affecting the smaller tubes surrounded by areas of consolidation. These lesions are the same as are found in broncho-pneumonia. The temperature curve is frequently the same as found in broncho-pneumonia, ranging between 100° and 104° F. The areas of consolidation are more frequently found in the upper lobes. There is also broncho-vesicular breathing and bronchophony. Percussion note shows slight dullness. The cough may assume a paroxysmal character similar to whooping-cough. Convulsions and frequently meningeal symptoms, such as a slowness of the pulse or Cheyne-Stokes breathing, will show the extension of the disease to the brain.

2. *Those Assuming a Chronic or Protracted Course.*—The duration of this form of the disease may be between one and six months. Some cases may last but three months. This is the most common type of the disease seen. Cases are frequently seen following measles, whooping-cough, pneumonia, or diphtheria. Those cases I have seen ended fatally within three or four months. There is usually a slight improvement after the second or third week of this disease. The temperature falls and the physical signs seem to disappear. As a rule the disease reappears with more violent symptoms, and emaciation, fever, and sweating continue until the end. The temperature curve is not regular. In some cases it ranges between 99° and 101° F. Other cases will have a much higher temperature, the thermometer registering 104° F. frequently. Expectoration is rarely seen in young infants, as they invariably cough and swallow the same. The breathing is usually labored; hence dyspnœa is almost always present. When we have Cheyne-Stokes breathing, or irregular breathing, with a slow pulse, then cerebral complication should be suspected.

CHAPTER IV.

CHRONIC PULMONARY TUBERCULOSIS (TUBERCULOUS BRONCHO-PNEUMONIA).

THIS condition is rarely found in infants and very young children. When chronic pulmonary tuberculosis is noted it is usually seen in children after the sixth or eighth year.

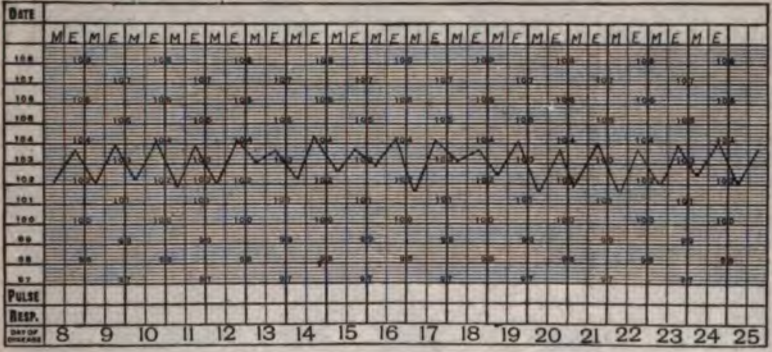

Fig. 153.—Fever curve during the early period of Chronic Pulmonary Tuberculosis. The daily excursions are slight, and generally range between 102° and 104° F. (Original.)

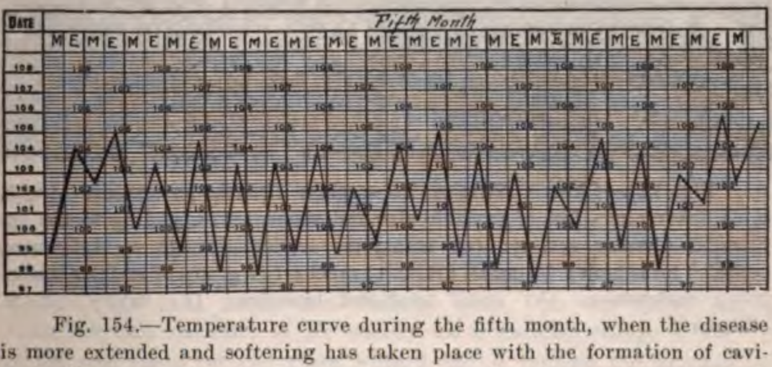

Fig. 154.—Temperature curve during the fifth month, when the disease is more extended and softening has taken place with the formation of cavities. The temperature is more hectic in character. The morning temperature may be normal or subnormal, while the evening temperature ranges between 103° and 105° F. (Original.)

Pathology.—Osler states that small cavities are by no means rare in chronic pulmonary tuberculosis of children, but very large excavations are rare; thus in 265 cases noted by Barthez and Sanné there were 77 cases with excavation, chiefly in the upper lobes. In the analysis by Leroux of the cases of the late Parrot, in 219 children under 2 years of age, there were 57 instances in which cavities existed. In five of these the children were under three months. In long-standing cases hard, firm, fibrous tubercles are found, and sometimes cutaneous nodules. The primary lesion in a great majority of instances is a tuberculous broncho-pneumonia, taking its origin in the smaller bronchioles, leading to peribronchial nodules and subsequent peribronchial alveolitis. The lesions are similar to those met with in tuberculosis of adults—miliary tubercles, peribronchial nodules, caseous blocks, areas of softening and of fibroid induration, and cavities of various sizes. We do not see so frequently the

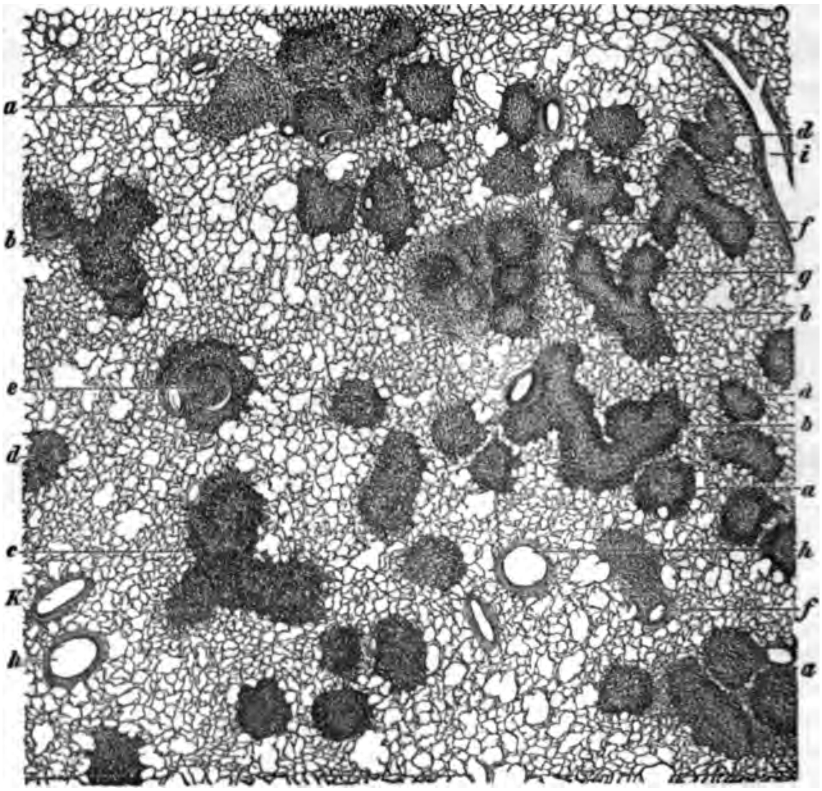

Fig. 155.—Chronic Nodular Tuberculous Broncho-pneumonia. (*a*, *b*, *c*, *d*) tuberculous foci of variable size and shape, corresponding to the infiltrated alveolar system; (*c*) transverse section through an infiltrated occluded bronchiole; (*f*) small arterial branch; (*g*) group of nodules undergoing coalescence; (*h*) small unaltered bronchus; (*k*) artery. X 6. (Ziegler.)

invasion of the lung from the apex downward. The chief seat of disease may be in the central portion of the lung, or even at the base. In tuberculosis of the lymph glands the groups along the trachea and about the bronchi may be greatly enlarged and caseous, forming on section a very striking feature in the chronic pulmonary tuberculosis of children.

Symptoms.—Chronic pulmonary tuberculosis in the child presents the same symptoms as in the adult. Usually a broncho-pneumonia will first be encountered, or the symptoms present will resemble those of a broncho-pneumonia. When fever persists and there are evidences of a general breakdown, such as malaise, loss of appetite, and emaciation with or without cough, then this condition must be suspected. When these children expectorate, the same resembles that seen in adults. Tubercle bacilli have frequently been found in the expectoration of cases under my care. Blood spitting in which the mucus is blood-stained has been seen by me. The blood is bright red in color. Epistaxis is sometimes seen during the course of the disease. The temperature ranges between 100° and 102° F. in the beginning of the disease; later on it assumes the real hectic character; thus, the temperature may be 99° to 100° F. in the morning, and 103° to 105° F. in the evening.

Pleuritic pains are complained of in various parts of the chest. There is marked dyspnœa and frequently cyanosis. Osler states that some cases do not have any pain throughout the course of the disease. A general emaciation associated with muscular weakness and anæmia is usually seen later in the disease. Tubercular ulceration of the intestine will frequently cause diarrhœa. In a child seen by me with chronic tuberculosis of the lungs, a general anasarca was present.

Katie B., 8 years old, has been a very delicate child. She was breast- and bottle- fed, and lived in a tenement house.

Family History.—The father was a drunkard and did not support his family; the mother is a frail, anæmic woman, although no evidence of pulmonary disease could be found. The child was late in walking, late in teething, and late in talking. Distinct evidence of rickets of the bones was everywhere noted. When 4 years old the child had measles, complicated with broncho-pneumonia, after which a cough remained. Three months after the measles the child still coughed and showed evidences of malnutrition. The cough persisted in spite of codliver-oil, malt extract, and iron, which were liberally given. As the family was poor, they could not take the child to the country for a complete change of air. I did not see the case again for two years, when I saw it through the courtesy of Dr. John H. Wurthman. At this time she had a cavity at the apex of the right lung, was terribly emaciated, and complained of pain on breathing and suffered with marked dyspnœa. Pleuritic friction sounds were heard over small areas of the chest on both sides. The child had hæmoptysis, besides a purulent expectoration. Tubercle bacilli were found in the sputum. She died after a violent hæmorrhage, from exhaustion and heart-failure.

The treatment is the same as described for acute tuberculosis.

PULMONARY GANGRENE.

This condition, fortunately, is very rare.

Diagnosis.—This is made by the characteristic foul odor of the breath and the expectorated gangrenous material. I have seen a case of this kind during my summer service at the Willard Parker Hospital in a child that suffered with laryngeal diphtheria complicated by broncho-pneumonia. The septic condition dragged on for weeks. There was a very putrid odor to the breath. The child finally died of sepsis. As a rule the diagnosis can only be made post-mortem.

Treatment.—Restorative treatment, consisting of light, nutritious diet, should be given and stimulants liberally used. Steam inhalations impregnated with beechwood creosote will modify the odor. Creosote carbonate can be given with the food in 5- to 10- minim doses, several times a day.

CHAPTER V.

ACUTE TUBERCULOSIS (MILIARY TUBERCULOSIS).[1]

TUBERCULOSIS is a specific infectious disease caused by invasion of the tubercle bacillus. The disease is disseminated by the same.

Etiology.—Acute miliary tuberculosis is frequently seen in very young children. I have seen cases in bottle-fed infants under 1 year of age. It is also frequently associated with tubercular meningitis. As a rule it follows those diseases which devitalize the system, such as the acute infectious diseases. In prolonged diseases affecting the air passages, tuberculosis frequently follows.

Cows' Milk.—The majority of cases of tuberculosis are found in children brought up by artificial feeding. This implies that such children received cows' milk. The dangers of infection by or with the tubercle bacillus can usually be excluded inasmuch as nearly every woman boils the milk. The more modern woman of to-day, instead of boiling cows' milk, submits the food to a steaming process, either by using a sterilizer or a pasteurizer. The result is the same, namely, the destruction of pathogenic bacteria of all kind, including the tubercle bacillus. Such artificial feeding with cows' milk frequently results in gastro-intestinal derangement. Dyspeptic attacks rob the system of food required for the nutrition of bone, muscle and other organic structures. When such conditions persist then poor foundations are formed, resulting in rickets or marasmus. The tubercle bacillus easily gains entrance where subnormal conditions prevail, and secures a foothold that ultimately develops tuberculosis.

Woman's Milk.—Human milk is intended by nature for the nutrition of infants. It offers decided prophylactic substances to the nurslings, for example: the nursing infant is very rarely afflicted with diphtheria or similar infectious diseases. This is most probably due to the immunity conferred by human serum and the antibodies or bacteriolysins which the serum contains during the nursing period. This also accounts for the rarity of pulmonary tuberculosis in children reared on woman's milk. The value of human milk has frequently been noted by me while studying this question in a children's clinic patronized by people living in the most congested district of New York City.

The statistics of my cases of tuberculosis from the children's service of the German Poliklinik in New York City are very interesting. Five thousand children were examined at random for the presence of tubercular of the young infant with tuberculous sputum may result in inoculation, as has been repeatedly shown in connection with ritual circumcision.

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[1] Tuberculosis of the bones, joints, and glands are described under separate articles.

The interesting observations of Lehmann show that sucking the wound after the ritual circumcision of Jewish children has caused tuberculosis. Baginsky reports a case of the transmission of tuberculosis to the eyebrow of a child by a tuberculous person. That tuberculosis may be transmitted by the process of vaccination on the arm cannot be disputed.

There must be a certain disposition or predisposition to the development of this disease. Other factors which are prominent in this connection are poor hygienic apartments; rooms in which sunshine is absent and in which foul air stagnates will certainly lower the normal resisting power of any and all individuals. When a child has passed through an acute infectious disease which has already lowered its vitality, then an infection with tuberculosis is more easily accomplished. Among such diseases which predispose to the development of tuberculosis are whooping-cough and measles. The same is also true in exhaustive diseases which drain the vitality of children for a long time, as, for example, after a prolonged attack of summer complaint. The disease frequently accompanies the nursing period, hence even the youngest child may become infected.

Tuberculosis has so great a tendency to generalize itself in children that the question of the primary infection is not to be settled by the mere frequency of the lesions. The fact that children swallow their sputa is to be kept in mind. There is no question as to its infectiousness, while that of infected milk in the human species has not been absolutely demonstrated. Still's statistics show that in 25 cases taken consecutively, of children under 3 years, who did not expectorate, intestinal lesions were found in 19, while in a similar series, aged between 3 and 12, they were found in only 10. It would thus appear that autoinfection by the sputa in infants is a matter of serious importance.

Bacteriology.—The germ can be traced to the blood and also the cells of the blood-vessels. This has been proven through studies made by Doutrelepont, Lustig, Meisels, and Weigert.

Demme found this specific germ in pus exuding from an eczema; the same is true about pus in otitis. Tuberculous affections of the tongue, of the nasal mucous membrane, of the thorax and tuberculous swellings on the lips of young girls have been described by Volkmann. Primary tuberculosis of the thymus, of the heart, and of the vaginal mucous membrane have been published by Demme. A. Baginsky has described a series of cases of tuberculous perityphlitis, peritonitis, and enteritis. Tuberculosis of the testicles in children has been seen and observed by him. The so-called scrofulous inflammatory conditions of the joints and suppurative diseases of the bones, while being described as "scrofulous," are usually of a tuberculous nature. The internal organs suffer from the invasion of the tubercle bacillus in this connection. The lungs and the pleura, the pericardium and myocardium, the liver, spleen, and kidneys, the coverings of the brain, and the brain itself are frequently affected.

The question of the transmission of the tubercle bacillus is one that is still debatable. Thus Jani reports in Virchow's Archiv, Bd. 103, p. 522, that the seminal fluid of tuberculous persons contains tubercle bacilli. The cases of tubercles in the fœtus are described by Johne and Armanni.[1] Bang, Lehmann, Birch Hirschfeld, Rindfleisch, and Kossel are among those who have reported isolated cases of tuberculosis directly transmitted from parent to child. Hochsinger recently reported 3 cases which he describes as congenital tuberculosis. These cases were associated with syphilis, and he believes that this disease is far more frequently transmitted than is generally recognized. Thus it appears from the studies of Brandenberg, Lesage, and Wolff that the placenta is an exceedingly valuable culture medium for this specific micro-organism, and thus they account for the comparative freedom of the fœtus born to a tuberculous mother.

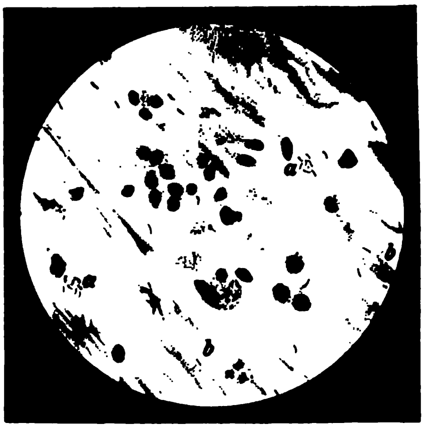

Fig. 156.—Tubercle Bacilli and Micrococcus Tetragenus (sputum). Gabbet's stain, Leitz ocular I, oil immersion $^1/_{12}$. *(a)* tubercle bacilli; *(b)* micrococcus tetragenus. (Lenhartz-Brooks).

Cornet and, more recently, Flügge made extensive investigations showing the means of dissemination of the tubercle bacillus. We are indebted to them for our knowledge regarding the danger of sputum of a phthisical patient, and also regarding the manner of transmission of this disease.

How susceptible very young children are can be shown by a case published by Wassermann,[2] in which he reports the transmission of tuberculosis to a child six weeks old by being in contact in the same room with a phthisical patient for eight days. Kitasato[1] reports the fact that tubercle bacilli die rapidly in the sputum, and he therefore does not believe the danger of the transmissibility of tuberculosis is as great as has been claimed. That contact with tuberculous patients is a very serious matter can be seen by a study of the literature.

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[1] Tenth International Medical Congress, Bd. 5.

[2] Zeitschrift f. Hygiene, p. 353.

Mother's milk has been closely studied and the possibility of infection through this channel cannot be denied.

Pathological Anatomy.—We are indebted to Bayle, Buhl, Laënnec, and Virchow for the division and study of the pathological anatomy of this disease. These authors divide the conditions into two distinct parts: First, cheesy pneumonia; second, the real miliary tuberculosis. By the cheesy pneumonia is meant that form of a chronic destructive process ending in cheesy necrobiosis. By the miliary tuberculosis is meant that form of disease commencing as a tiny nodular swelling, which starts in the connective tissue and is associated with the lymph bodies, having a tendency to form broken-down cheesy masses. The pathology of this disease can certainly be associated with no greater name than that of Virchow, to whom we are indebted for the bulk of our knowledge of this disease.

The tubercle is a small, grayish-white, translucent, sometimes yellowish body. The greatest masses consist of small, round cells about the size of a red blood-corpuscle, and large cells resembling epithelium. There are also giant cells. The giant cell, as a rule, can be found in the middle of these tubercles and is so closely identified with this condition that it has been looked upon as characteristic of this disease.

The growth of the tubercle consists in the development of new masses arising from the giant cells. In these giant cells there are no blood-vessels, and as there is no nutrition they easily break down and form what is later on the beginning of cheesy masses, which, by absorption and a melting process, are the real beginnings of cavities. At times these masses result in chalk deposits. The question of the specific origin of the disease has been finally settled by the investigations of Koch, who proved the specific micro-organism known as the tubercle bacillus to be the pathological factor.

Biedert found 16 cases of primary intestinal tuberculosis among 3104 post-mortems.

Heller found 7.4 per cent. of primary tuberculosis among 714 post-mortems in diphtheria, and a total of 19.6 per cent. of all varieties of tuberculosis among these 714 cases.

Orth states that primary intestinal tuberculosis is exceedingly rare in Berlin because of the universal use of sterilized or boiled milk.[2]

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[1] Zeitschr. f. Hygiene, Bd. 9, 1892, Heft 3.

[2] I have collected and described a series of important observations on the association of cows' milk with tuberculosis. The pathology of the cow's udder and the milk ducts are also described. (See chapter on "Cows' Milk.")

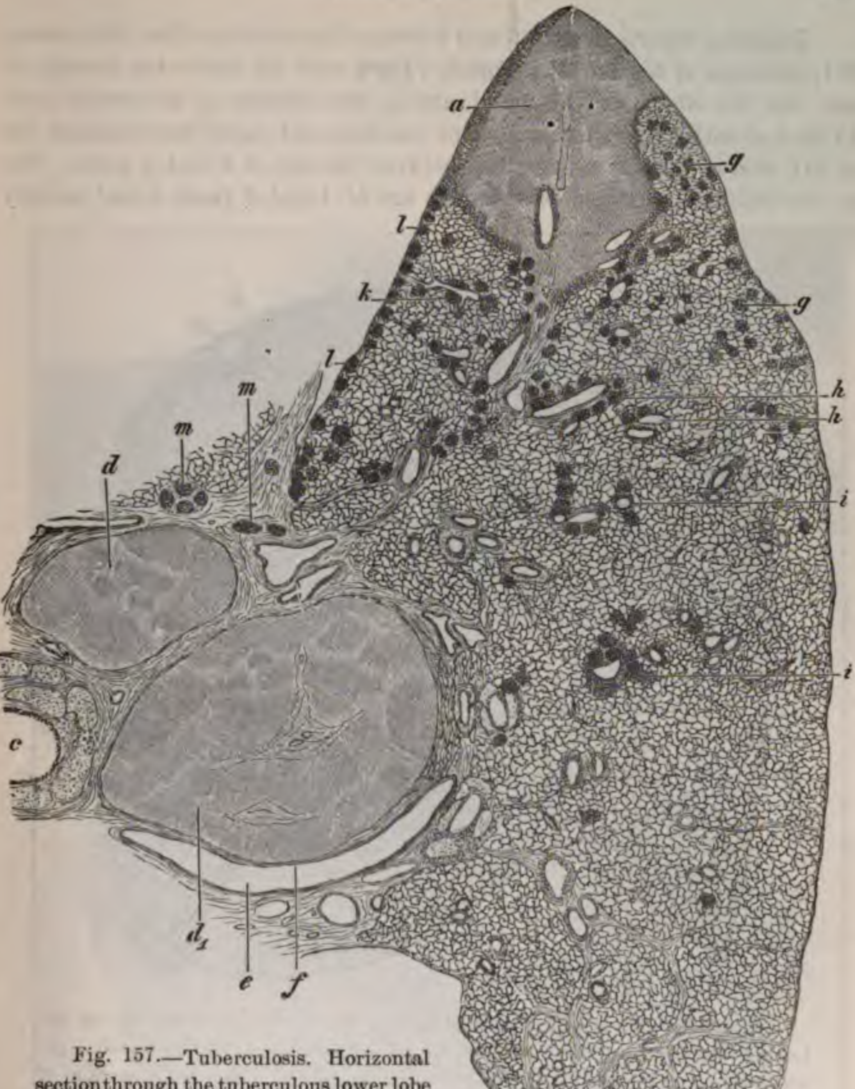


Fig. 157.—Tuberculosis. Horizontal section through the tuberculous lower lobe of the right lung of a two-year-old child. *(a)* caseous focus in the region of the anterior border; *(b)* nontuberculous posterior border; *(c)* transverse section of bronchus; *(d, d^1)* caseated lymph glands; *(e)* pulmonary vein; *(f)* point of adhesion of the *vein e* with the *lymph gland* d^1; *(g)* tubercle in the lymph vessels of the lung parenchyma; *(h)* periarterial; *(i)* peribronchial; *(k)* perivenous tubercles; *(l)* lymph vessel tubercles of the pleura; *(m)* tubercle in its connective tissue of the hilus of the lung. X3. (Ziegler.)

Baginsky reports that he found 8 cases of tuberculosis that died among 871 nurslings at his Berlin hospital. These were all under ten months of age. On the other hand he found, among 266 children in the second year, 13 died of miliary tuberculosis. One hundred and eighty-two children out of 611 died of miliary tuberculosis between the age of 2 and 4 years. Out of 152 children examined between the age of 4 and 6 years, 6 had miliary tuberculosis.

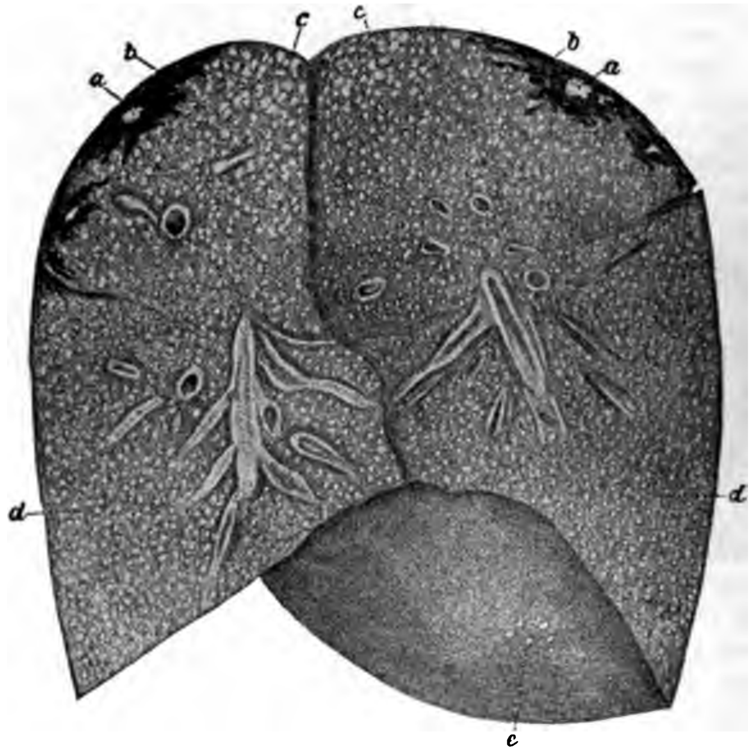
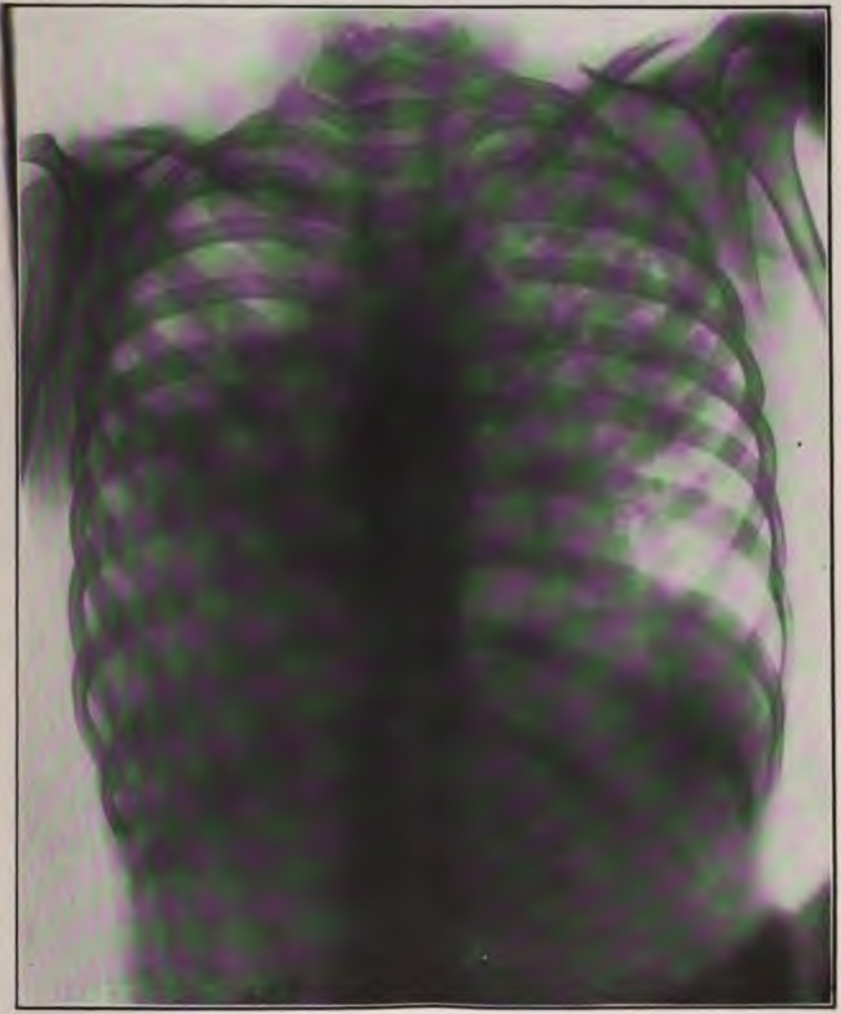


Fig. 158.—Acute Pulmonary Miliary Tuberculosis (Cut Surface of the Lung.) *(a)* so called obsolete tubercle (old encapsulated caseous focus). *(b)* induration. *(c)* caseous, partly agminated nodules (transverse section of caseous bronchi.) *(d)* submiliary noncaseated tubercle in the true lung tissue. *(e)* tubercle of the pulmonary pleura. One half natural size. (Langerhans.)

Still[1] considers these facts and offers some interesting statistics, based, not on clinical observation, but on post-mortem findings, for the solution of this problem. In 769 autopsies of children, tubercle was found in 269, or 35.2 per cent. Tuberculosis was the actual cause of deaths in 252, or 32.8 per cent. From these statistics, therefore, it can be roughly estimated that

[1] Clinical Journal, London.

PLATE XX



Disseminated pulmonary tuberculosis with collapsed right lung and a natural pneumothorax. Child four years old.

about one-third of the deaths in childhood are due to tuberculosis in one form or other. While children are thus shown to be specially subject to this disease, they are not equally so at all ages, for Still shows that up to the age of 4 the percentage is as high as 71, and between 4 and 8 is still 22.5; after 8 it diminishes to 6.5. Moreover, the greater part of the tuberculosis under the age of 4—43.4 of the 71 per cent.—occurred in children under 2 years of age. This great frequency of tuberculosis in infancy has been used as an argument in favor of the idea of infection through milk, the primary lesion being in the digestive tract. It is true, Still says, that intestinal tuberculosis is exceedingly common in children; it existed in 52 per cent. of his cases examined, but so also is that of the brain and meninges —48 per cent.—and that of the lungs is far more frequent—78 per cent.

The total number of deaths reported as due to consumption in the United States during the census year was 109,750, of which 53,626 were males and 56,124 were females and the ratio of deaths from this disease to 1000 deaths from all known causes was 109.9. In 1890 the corresponding ratio was 122.3.

The death rate of the colored from consumption was nearly three times that of the whites, and that of the foreign whites was much higher than that of the native whites. For the last-mentioned class the death rate for those having one or both parents foreign was also much higher than for those of native parents.

The death rate of males from this disease was considerably higher than that of females.

The total number of deaths reported as due to consumption in the United States in children under 15 years of age, during the census years 1890-1900, was 8051, of which 3554 were males and 4497 were females.

The death rate from consumption in the registration States was higher in the District of Columbia (305.3), which was due mainly to the large colored population. The next highest rate in the registration States was in Rhode Island, where it was 195.3. The death rate from this disease was higher among males than females in the cities, but lower in the rural districts. Excluding the District of Columbia, the highest occurred among males in the city of New York (265.3), and the lowest among males in the rural districts of Michigan.

The following table shows that the death rates due to consumption in white persons under 15 years of age were highest in those whose mothers were born in Italy (50.7), in France (47.1), and in "other foreign" countries (45.9); and were lowest in those whose mothers were born in Poland (11.4), in Bohemia (13.2), and in Germany (26.6).

J. Walker Carr reports statistics of necropsies on tuberculous children at the Victoria Hospital. He found 79 in which the disease most probably started in the chest and 20 in which it seemed to have begun in the

TABLE NO. 44.

Color and Birthplace of Mothers.	Under 15 Years.
White	31.8
Colored	246.0
Mothers born in—	
United States	27.5
Ireland	42.2
Germany	26.6
England and Wales	27.2
Canada	34.5
Scandinavia	32.4
Scotland	32.9
Italy	50.7
France	47.1
Hungary	38.6
Bohemia	13.2
Russia	26.7
Poland	11.4
Other foreign	45.9

TABLE NO. 45.—*Percentage of Deaths per 1000 from Consumption in Children from 1 to 15 years of age (United States).*

Age.	1900		1890	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Under 1 year	18.8	17.8	20.1	16.5
1 year	9.3	9.6	9.7	10.9
2 years	5.2	4.8	5.1	5.0
3 years	3.3	4.0	2.7	3.6
4 years	2.3	2.2	2.0	2.8
Under 5 years	38.9	38.4	39.6	38.8
5 to 9 years	8.1	13.2	8.1	11.7
10 to 14 years	9.5	24.7	10.7	27.2

abdomen. Here the relation between the two forms of infection is as 1 to 4. In 26 children of early or limited tuberculosis, the thorax alone was affected in 12 cases, the abdomen in 7, being in the proportion of 1 to 1.7. Of 53 tuberculous children under 2 years of age the disease most probably began in the chest in 43 and in only 5 certainly in the abdomen, the proportion in this case being as 1 to 8.6. Out of 27 children over 5 years of age, the disease began in the chest in 12, in the abdomen in 6, the relation being as 1 to 2.

Bollinger, in his address at the International Tuberculosis Congress, of Berlin, in 1899, quoted with approval the record of autopsies by Heller (Kiel) of 248 tuberculous children. In 45.5 per cent. of the cases tuberculosis involved the mesenteric glands. From these it was concluded that milk played a leading rôle in the so-called transmitted tuberculosis of children.

It is plain from what has been said, without quoting further statistics, that in some countries where bovine tuberculosis is very frequent, there is also a great frequency of tuberculosis in children. Bollinger concludes that "although the tuberculosis of cattle and swine does not stand in the first line as source and starting point of human tuberculosis, nevertheless—considering their enormous distribution and progressive additions, and the great danger from the ingestion of the milk of tuberculous cows—they are certainly for humanity the most important and the most dangerous of all animal plagues, and deserve the most earnest attention from the sanitarian and the state."

Symptoms.—The more important symptoms noted in this condition are a general restlessness with a rise of temperature. Children frequently have little or no cough, but some difficulty with respiration for which no distinct physical signs can be found. The temperature will sometimes rise as high as 103° or 104° F., or it may suddenly become apyretic and assume a subnormal tendency. The temperature usually seen is 101° F. The children appear very anæmic and at times cyanotic, mostly on the cheeks and lips. Emaciation usually accompanies this *"intermittent type of fever."* To the inexperienced, the beginning of a miliary tuberculosis resembles mostly the clinical picture which so frequently accompanies intermittent fever. There usually is slight swelling of the peripheral lymph glands. The spleen and liver will be felt enlarged. The urine will give a slight diazo reaction, also an indican reaction. Neither of these, however, are constantly present. We have what is commonly known as a "pre-tubercular anæmia," in which there is a general *tendency to breakdown,* and pallor so well marked, for which there is no distinct group of symptoms. When such profound anæmia exists with slight variations of temperature, then tuberculosis may be inferred; hence this stage is regarded by some clinicians as the "pre-tubercular" stage. Occasionally the examination of the chest shows catarrhal symptoms and rhonchi as accompany an ordinary bronchitis. There is an absence of bronchial breathing and no distinct evidence of dullness on percussion. Frequently these symptoms increase in severity. Cyanosis may accompany this condition and the circulation may be so poor as to show cold feet and hands. Death occasionally follows this condition. The clinical picture here given is the one that is frequently seen in that type of acute miliary tuberculosis running a malignant and very short course. In this condition the children appear very pale and lose weight. There is distinct anorexia which alternates with hyperorexia. Dyspeptic symptoms, such as vomiting and diarrhœa, may alternate with constipation. Such children are usually very sensitive and inclined to be peevish and cry on the slightest provocation.

A study of the above symptoms will show that there are *no distinct typical symptoms* which can be laid *down as positively diagnostic.* It is for this reason that so many other diseases are confounded with miliary tuberculosis until the same has progressed considerably. When there is marked cachexia accompanying nurslings for which there is no distinct reason, and especially so if the fever accompanying the same is an intermittent type, then we should not forget the possibility of our dealing with a case of miliary tuberculosis.

CASE I. A child, 2 years old, was brought to my children's clinic at the New York Post-Graduate Medical School and Hospital, with the following history: She was a bottle-fed infant raised on condensed milk. The bowels were always constipated. Has had one attack of cholera infantum when eleven months old which caused emaciation and general atrophy.

Present illness dates back to three months ago when child had measles followed by a severe broncho-pneumonia. The cough has persisted, but mostly at night. There was no expectoration.

Physical Examination.—Examination reveals an emaciated, very rachitic child, pigeon-breasted, with decided beaded ribs. There is also a kyphosis. The abdomen is distended (pot-belly). The superficial veins are enlarged, the head shows marked frontal, parietal, and occipital rickets. Cranio-tabes is also present, so that we can safely call this a markedly rachitic case. At the left apex there were heard coarse, mucous and sonorous râles, also prolonged expiration. The right lower lobe had several areas of amphoric breathing, also some friction sounds and prolonged harsh expiration. Percussion note was dull. The morning temperature in the rectum was 101° F., pulse 144, respiration 40. The appetite was poor, spleen enlarged, hands and feet cold, and the child perspired freely.

Diagnosis.—Tuberculosis after morbilli.

Family History.—The father died of tuberculosis when the infant was six months old. The mother is still living and in apparent good health. Two other children in the same family show no evidence of illness. The family live in a rear house behind a tenement house. The weight of the child when first seen was sixteen pounds.

Treatment.—An emulsion of the yolks of 6 eggs containing sugar, and 15 drops of creosote carbonate was fed each day. Buttermilk and the serum of bullock's blood was given in wineglassful doses several times a day. *The child was sent to the country* and ordered to live out of doors. The appetite improved and the cough lessened. From month to month the clinical symptoms gradually subsided and at the end of two years the physical signs in the lungs entirely disappeared, and her weight increased to 32 pounds.

In this case tubercle bacilli were found in the sputum that was vomited after a severe coughing paroxysm. The case is well to-day.

CASE II. A girl, 12 years old, seen by me some years ago, was brought to my children's clinic at the New York Post-Graduate Medical School and Hospital. She was suffering with headache, cough, general malaise, poor appetite, and emaciation. She had been under the treatment of a physician who diagnosed malaria. The bowels were irregular, at times constipated, at other times diarrhœal. The urine, light amber color, contained nothing abnormal. The child perspired freely at the slightest exertion, even after each paroxysm of cough.

Previous History.—She was a bottle-fed infant. Had measles and broncho-pneumonia at 3 years. When 5 years old had had whooping-cough which lasted four months. Excepting an occasional cough no other symptoms were present.

Family History.—The family history is good. Both parents are living and four brothers; all are healthy. The only history as to etiology is that this girl has lived in unsanitary surroundings, besides having a weakened state of the respiratory tract.

Physical Examination.—At the first examination she appeared slightly icteric, the spleen was enlarged, the liver normal. There was a slight dullness at the apex of the right side, some mucous râles and harsh breathing. There was a slight expectoration, no history of hæmoptysis. Nose bleeding was complained of occasionally. The diagnosis was made by the presence of tubercle bacilli in the sputum. Each month her sputum was examined, and it was found that the sputum which was expectorated during the early morning hours, between 4 and 6 A.M., contained the greatest number of tubercle bacilli. After four months of treatment it was found that the bacilli in the morning sputum were so sparingly present that evidently some change was going on. The symptoms of headache and malaise disappeared entirely. The icteric condition disappeared. The epistaxis has not shown itself within the last five months. A careful examination of the sputum four times a month has not shown a single tubercle bacillus.

The treatment consisted in removing the child from school and giving her a substantial diet of which proteids formed the chief part. The hygienic conditions were improved as much as the circumstances of the family would permit.

I impressed the family with the necessity of removing the child to the country and she was given into the employ of a farmer, and ordered to be in the open air all of the time. Six months later I saw the case again. She had gained in weight. Her cough had ceased and the physical signs were lessened.

The child lived in the country eighteen months.

At the end of this time there was no evidence of cough nor of the general malaise excepting the physical signs on auscultation and percussion. I have seen this child in all about seven years and believe that she is quite healthy. The pulmonary symptoms have entirely disappeared.

According to Loomis, tuberculosis and cavities in the lungs can and do heal. I have good reason to believe that in this patient, in whom we diagnosed apex tuberculosis or a catarrhal tuberculosis affecting the apices of both lungs, this process was arrested in its incipiency.

Diagnosis.—*Method of Obtaining Sputum:* In infants and young children who do not expectorate, the following method of obtaining sputum is suggested by Findlay, of Glasgow: "With a piece of gauze on the forefinger, the pharynx, and especially the epiglottis, is irritated so as to induce coughing, and any expectoration that is coughed up is swept out of the mouth before it has time to be swallowed. The quantity thus obtained varies, but as a rule is sufficient for bacteriological examination."

The diagnosis will frequently be very difficult, especially so if no data can be obtained which will complete our clinical picture. If the child has been exposed to tuberculous individuals then a suspicion may arise (if there is a tuberculous family disposition) of a possibility of the development of this disease. Frequently the symptoms are such as to resemble typhoid, but if there is an absence of roseola, if the diazo reaction is absent, and if the Widal reaction is absent, then miliary tuberculosis must be inferred. The ophthalmoscopic examination must not be looked upon as a positive criterion, for miliary tuberculosis may exist in spite of the absence of tuberculosis of the choroid. For differential diagnosis between tuberculosis and syphilis, see chapter on "Syphilis."

Tuberculin.—The use of injections of tuberculin for diagnostic as well as therapeutic results dates back to 1891, when Koch first announced clinical results. My experience with tuberculin at that time, through the courtesy of George F. Shrady, at the St. Francis Hospital, New York, was not very encouraging. I have also seen cases in which tuberculin was used through the courtesy of Prof. Adolph Baginsky, at the Berlin Children's Hospital. Baginsky has never encouraged the use of these injections. In his sixth edition of "Lehrbuch der Kinderkrankheiten," 1899, page 350, he says: "I do not believe that the injection of tuberculin, especially in very small children, is without danger. I am aware that Kossel, in Berlin, uses the injections very extensively and without ill results." In young children a dose of $^1/_{50000}$ milligram should be given, and two weeks later followed by an injection of $^1/_{25000}$ milligram. The injections should be given in the evening, and local as well as constitutional symptoms carefully noted. These injections should be given about once a week and the dose gradually increased, so that at the end of two months $^1/_{5000}$ milligram can be injected without producing severe reaction.

TUBERCULIN REACTION AN AID TO THE DIAGNOSIS OF LATENT FORMS OF TUBERCULOSIS.[1]

Von Pirquet found that by inoculating the skin with a minute quantity of old tuberculin a local inflammatory reaction is produced. There is no fever nor general systemic disturbance after such inoculation. With the older method of Koch fever followed each injection. The technique is as follows: Wash the arm with ether and scarify three small areas, but not enough to produce a bloody surface. Into two of the scarified areas inoculate (similar to vaccination) diluted tuberculin of the strength of one part tuberculin with three parts normal saline solution. Leave the third scarified area without inoculation as a control. After twenty-four, rarely later than forty-eight, hours a local inflammatory reaction, about 10 millimeters in width, surrounding the inoculated area, denotes a positive reaction. In the last stages of miliary tuberculosis and tuberculous meningitis no reaction follows. The ophthalmo reaction[2] is another method of diagnosis.

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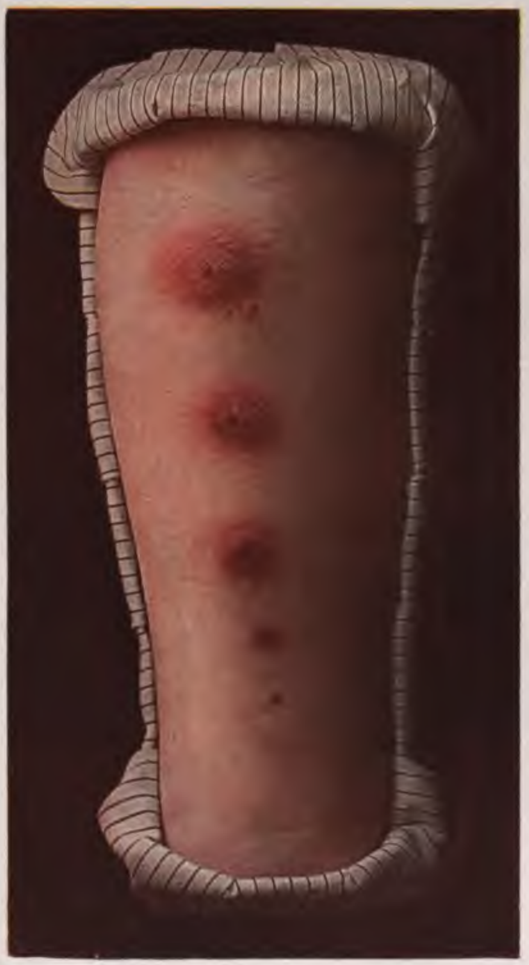
[1] Complete literature and details published in the New York Medical Journal, October 19, 1907.

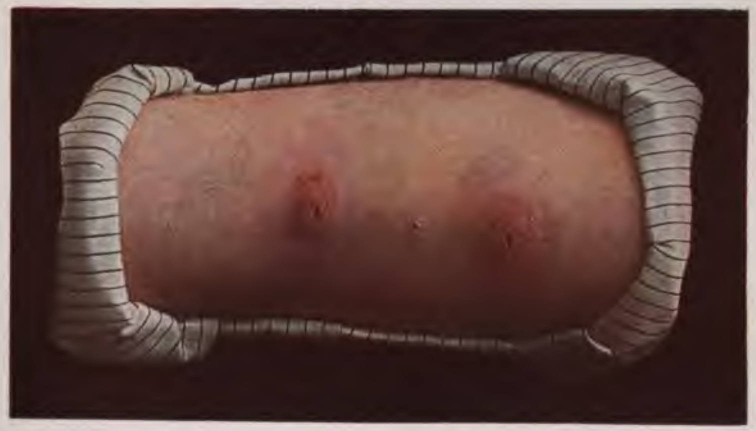
[2] Calmette advises using a $^1/_{100}$ per cent. dilution of tuberculin dropped into the eye.

PLATE XXI

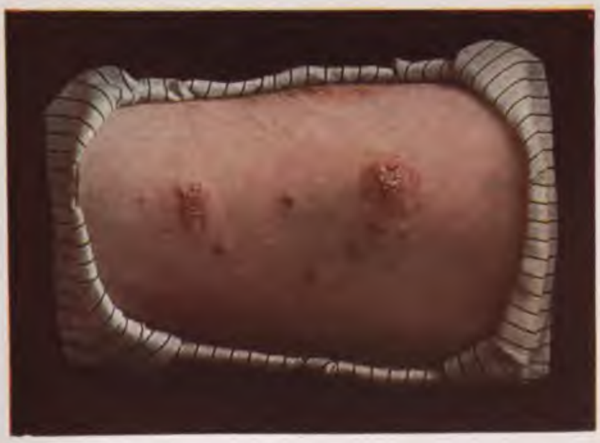


Cutaneous Reaction Showing the Various Results with Concentrated and Diluted Tuberculin. Taken 48 hours after inoculation by Dr. Henning, at the clinic of Escherich.

PLATE XXII



Severe Cutaneous Reaction. Note the two places inoculated. The center is the control. (Escherich's clinic.)



Scrofulous Reaction. Two outer places inoculated. The center is the control. (Escherich's clinic.)

Heliotherapy.—Exposing the body to sun baths in addition to living out-of-doors, preferably at an altitude of several thousand feet, are recognized as the strongest modern therapeutic measures employed. Statistics show the great advantage of heliotherapy in mountainous regions; on the other hand, we have excellent results at the sea level in tuberculous children.[1]

Pulmonary Gymnastics.—Deep inspiration and expiration will oxygenate the lungs when regularly performed.

Deep breaths taken in the mountains on which there are pine-needle trees will do more toward expanding and impregnating diseased or collapsed portions of the lung than will the inhalation of a hundred times that quantity of pine-needle oil in the close, stuffy room when diffused from an atomizer. The hygienic treatment must not be confined to walking and breathing the pure air, but must be aided by tepid bathing and by stimulating the circulation of the blood by friction with a coarse Turkish towel. Sea salt can be added to the bath. When the feet or hands are cold they should be briskly rubbed until the blood circulates freely.

Medicinal Treatment.—Codliver-oil internally should be tried. If it is not well borne it can be used by external friction over the whole body, daily for ten or fifteen minutes. This is the so-called codliver-oil bath. If codliver-oil is not tolerated, butter should be given in large quantities. Codeine in 1/10- to 1/4-grain doses can be given, or heroin in 1/50- to 1/25-grain doses, three times a day, may be given to relieve cough. For the relief of the night sweats sulphate of atropine, 1/150 to 1/100 of a grain, three times a day, should be given. Toxic symptoms should always be looked for in the pupils when administering these drugs. A laxative dose of citrate of magnesia or calcined magnesia, 5 to 10 grains, several times a day, is useful. Creosote carbonate, 5 to 20 drops, three times a day, given in the form of an emulsion, has served me very well.

℞ Creosote carbonate	1 drachm
Mucilage acacia	1 ounce
Emulsion amygd. dulc.	q. s. ad 2 ounces

Sig.: One drachm three or four times a day.

If blood is expectorated, then 5 to 15 drops of fluidextract of ergot can be given every few hours. In other cases 5 to 10 grains of powdered alum, repeated every few hours, may do good. I have also seen good results from 5- and 10-grain doses of gallic acid. Fluidextract of hydrastis canadensis, 3 to 10 drops, several times a day, or hydrastinine hydrochlorate, 1/1000 grain, three times a day, may be tried.

Tincture of iron, in 5- to 10-drop doses, is a good hemostatic; besides it is a valuable tonic. Stimulation is sometimes required. Gymnastics and exercise should be ordered. These must, however, be supervised, so that fatigue is avoided. Besides stimulating the circulation, exercise aids in the metabolism of food.

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[1] See report of Dr. John Winters Brannan on Results with Heliotherapy at the Seaside Hospital, Coney Island, 1913.

We must not consider a case cured when all active symptoms subside, but must persist with climatic treatment for many years, to avoid a reinfection.

Attention should be directed to the upper air passages and adenoids and tonsils removed if the slightest evidence of symptoms is noted.

CHAPTER VI.

DIPHTHEROID.

THIS term we owe primarily to the French. It was introduced into the German literature by Professor Baginsky, and, after him, by Escherich.

This disease is caused by an infection resulting from a series of germs, chiefly streptococci or staphylococci. It is a disease which differs entirely from diphtheria. It is not a serious disease. There are no Klebs-Loeffler bacilli present. The usual evidences of systemic infection are absent. The child shows the clinical evidences of an infection in a milder form than is usually met with in diphtheria. The prognosis is good. The treatment should be directed toward restoring the normal condition of the body, and hence the saccharated carbonate of iron given in 5- to 10- grain doses, three or four times a day, is very useful. Locally, an astringent antiseptic gargle, consisting of equal parts of Dobell's solution and of warm water, to be used every hour for gargling, or a 1 to 5000 bichloride of mercury solution is very useful. Normal salt solution is also recommended.

The nutrition of the body will be the means of restoring the functions to their normal state. It is important, therefore, to feed in regular intervals milk, soup, broth, and eggs, if they can be assimilated. If the child is a bottle baby or a nursling at the breast, then a smaller quantity of food should be given, and if the same is not taken by the mouth then rectal alimentation will be urgently called for. It is wise to isolate each and every form of diphtheroid affection and thus prevent the possibility of the transmission of this infection.

PSEUDO OR FALSE DIPHTHERIA.

Under this general title are included all cases of pseudo-membranous or exudative inflammation of the mucous membranes in which the diphtheria bacilli are absent.

Since Loeffler, in 1889, first described a class of pseudo-membranous inflammations of the throat in which the diphtheria bacilli were absent and cocci present, it has been established that a certain portion of the inflammations of the respiratory mucous membranes, which closely resemble the less characteristic cases of diphtheria, are not due to the diphtheria bacilli, but to cocci, especially to streptococci.

It has been found that streptococci are commonly present in the throats of healthy persons, or at least in the throats of persons living in large cities, and that other forms of cocci, especially the pneumococci and staphylococci, are apt to be associated with them.

These germs seem to live in the throat without creating any disturbance there, so long as the mucous membranes are healthy; but under cerexercise should be ordered. These must, however, be supervised, so that fatigue is avoided. Besides stimulating the circulation, exercise aids in the metabolism of food.

We must not consider a case cured when all active symptoms subside, but must persist with climatic treatment for many years, to avoid a reinfection.

Attention should be directed to the upper air passages and adenoids and tonsils removed if the slightest evidence of symptoms is noted.

membranes occurring in the throat as a complication of these diseases. All observers have found the mortality far higher in those cases in which the diphtheria bacilli were present than in those in which they were absent. In true diphtheria the mortality has been found to vary from *25 to 70 per cent.*, while in pseudo-diphtheria it varies from *0 per cent. to 20 per cent.*

DIPHTHERIA.

Diphtheria is an acute infectious disease caused by the invasion of a specific micro-organism known as the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus.

It is a disease characterized by the presence, locally, of false membranes, known as pseudo-membranes.

The presence of pseudo-membrane is frequently caused by the streptococcus. The Klebs-Loeffler and the streptococcus varieties are identical in their clinical manifestations.

Etiology.—This disease is most frequently met with in children, although adults are not exempt from it. It is met with in the newly born (Jacobi). It is most frequently seen between the fourth and tenth years. Children are especially disposed to this disease between the ages of 1 and 5 years. Baginsky reports a series of 2711 cases in which:—

84 occurred during the first year.
889 between the first and fourth year.
1411 between the fourth and tenth year.
318 between the tenth and fourteenth year.

There is no difference in the sex regarding the predisposition to diphtheria:—

1311 in the above series were boys.
1400 were girls.

Infection is spread primarily by contact. It can be transmitted through dishes, play toys, and furniture to which the Klebs-Loeffler bacilli adhere. Infections have been traced to water and milk which contained the diphtheria bacillus. We know that the Klebs-Loeffler bacilli adhere to the walls and ceilings of rooms. The etiology of diphtheria remained obscure until Loeffler discovered the bacillus in 1884.

Kissing a child, sick or convalescing from diphtheria, is a direct method of contracting the disease.

Unhealthy Throats. Diseased tonsils, or adenoid vegetations in the pharynx, are usually foci for the development and propagation of the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus. This has been repeatedly verified by me during many years of service at the Willard Parker and Riverside Hospitals.

Thus it would appear wise to put the throat in as healthy a state as possible in order to guard against the development of this disease.

False diphtheria, in which there is a non virulent germ present, frequently resembles diphtheria.

Hunt's differential stain and also the Neisser stain will differentiate the non-virulent from the virulent form of germ.

TABLE NO. 46.—*Diphtheria Cases Under 18 Years. Willard Parker Hospital.*

		Grand Total.	Under 1 Year.	1 to 2 Years.	2 to 3 Years.	3 to 4 Years.	4 to 5 Years.	5 to 6 Years.	6 to 7 Years.	7 to 8 Years.	8 to 10 Years.	10 to 12 Years.	12 to 15 Years.	15 to 18 Years.
1910	Male	798	49	159	138	121	87	62	33	31	28	30	33	27
	Female	733	30	107	110	103	77	75	72	38	39	33	24	25
	Total	1531	79	266	248	224	164	137	105	69	67	63	57	52
1911	Male	530	29	139	102	50	58	33	23	12	35	20	15	14
	Female	760	62	158	90	104	109	62	42	20	30	25	30	28
	Total	1290	91	297	192	154	167	95	65	32	65	45	45	42

TABLE NO. 47.—*Per cent. of Mortality from Diphtheria in Different Cities of the United States.*

Cities.	Treatment.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.
Baltimore, Md.	No antitoxin .	. . .	. . .	.	19.83	17.52	15.01	14.62	13.37
Baltimore, Md.	With antitoxin	. . .	. . .	. . .	9.8	9.8	9.8	8.3	6.87
Lowell, Mass.	No antitoxin .	48.0	56.0	27.0	35 0	39.0	30.0	30.0	26.0
Lowell, Mass.	With antitoxin	28.0	10.0	9.0	9.0	12.0	4.0	11.0	8.0
Newark, N. J.	No antitoxin .	23.0	31.0	19.0	17.5	14.5	14.6	22.7	19.0
Newark, N. J.	With antitoxin	13.0	11.0	11.0	10.5	8.77	8.1	6.6	7 0
Rochester, N.Y.	No antitoxin .	. .	22.7	21.7	23.9	17.5	18.7	8.9	10.96
Rochester, N.Y.	With antitoxin	.	12.24	9.6	9.0	9.7	6.5	8.4	6.97

Bacteriology.—In the year 1883 bacilli which were very peculiar and striking in appearance were shown by Klebs to be of constant occurrence in the pseudo-membranes from the throats of those dying of true epidemic diphtheria. One year later Loeffler published the results of a very thorough and extensive series of investigations on this subject. He found the bacillus described by Klebs in most but not all cases of throat inflammations which had been diagnosticated as diphtheria. He separated these bacilli from the other bacteria present and obtained them in pure culture. When he inoculated these bacilli upon the abraded mucous membrane of susceptible animals, pseudo-membranes were produced, and frequently death followed. If a certain amount of a bouillon culture was injected subcutaneously into guinea pigs, death was caused with characteristic lesions. Loeffler's failure to find the bacilli in every case examined is now explained by the fact that certain varieties of pseudo-membranous inflammation caused by the streptococcus bacillus, such as occur especially in scarlet fever, were then wrongly considered to be true diphtheria.

Welch in an address on diphtheria said: "All the conditions have been fulfilled for diphtheria which are necessary to the most rigid proof of the dependence of an infectious disease upon a given micro-organism, viz.: the constant presence of this organism in the lesions of the disease, the isolation of the organism in pure culture, the reproduction of the disease by inoculation of pure cultures, and similar distribution of the organism in the experimental and the natural disease. In view of these facts we must agree with Prudden that we are now justified in saying that the name diphtheria, or at least primary diphtheria, should be applied, and exclusively applied, to that acute infectious disease usually associated with pseudo-membranous affections of the mucous membrane which is primarily caused by the bacillus diphtheriæ of Loeffler."

The germs cannot be found in the blood, but usually in the membranes. Now and then the specific germ may not be easily found in the pseudo-membranes. When such is the case, several cultures may be necessary to demonstrate the presence of the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus. This bacillus is most easily found in the older pseudo-membranes.

Frequently we find the streptococcus or the staphylococcus accompanying the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus. We are not justified in pronouncing the visible pseudo-membrane diphtheria unless we find the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus present.

When there is a pseudo-membrane present and the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus cannot be found, then a provisional diagnosis of diphtheria can be made.

Technical errors will sometimes occur in the taking of cultures or in inoculating culture media. Thus, the germ may not be found. The rule always followed by the writer is to *isolate every patient* having visible membranes until the same have disappeared.

The bacillus can frequently be transmitted through animals. Cows, cats, dogs, and pigeons having diphtheria can easily infect those coming into contact with them. Cows' milk can transmit the disease if the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus exists therein.

Characteristics of the Loeffler Bacillus.—The diameter of the bacilli varies from 0.3 to 0.8 micro-millimeters, and the length from 1.5 to 6.5 micro-millimeters. They occur singly and in pairs, and very infrequently in chains of three or four. The rods are straight or slightly curved, and usually are not uniformly cylindrical throughout their entire length, but are swollen at the ends, or pointed at the ends and swollen in the middle portion. Even from the same culture different bacilli vary greatly in their shape and size. The two bacilli of a pair may lie with their long diameter in the same axis, or at an obtuse or an acute angle. The bacilli possess no spores, but have in them highly refractile bodies. They stain readily with the ordinary aniline dyes and retain their color after staining by Gram's method. With an alkaline solution of methylene blue, the bacilli, from blood serum especially, and from other media less constantly, stain in an irregular and extremely characteristic way, namely, club-shaped.

The bacilli do not stain uniformly. Certain oval bodies situate in the ends, or in the central portions, stain much more intensely than the rest of the bacillus. Sometimes these highly stained bodies are thicker than the rest of the bacillus; again, they are thinner and surrounded by a more slightly stained portion. The bacilli seem to stain in this peculiar way at a certain period in their growth, so that only a portion of the organisms taken from a culture at any one time will show the characteristic staining. In old cultures it is often difficult to stain the bacilli, and the staining, when it does occur, is frequently not at all characteristic.

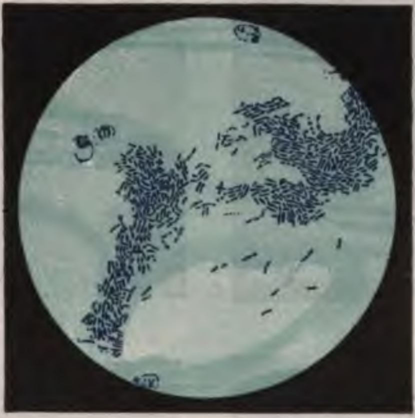

Fig. 159.—Diphtheria or Klebs-Loeffler bacilli; smear preparation from tonsillar deposit. Loeffler's stain. X 800. (Lenhartz-Brooks.)

Growth on Blood Serum.—If we examine the growth of the diphtheria bacillus in pure culture on blood serum, we will find at the end of ten to twelve hours little colonies of bacilli, which appear as pearl-gray or whitish-gray, slightly raised points. The colonies when separated from each other may increase in forty-eight hours, so that the diameter may be ¼ inch. The borders are usually somewhat uneven. These colonies, lying together, fuse into one mass, especially if the serum is rather moist. During the first twelve hours, the colonies of the diphtheria bacilli are about equal in size with those of the streptococci; but after this time the diphtheria colonies become larger than those of the streptococci, nearly equaling those of the staphylococci.

The Relation Between the Length of the Bacillus and its Virulence.—Some investigators believed that the degree of virulence possessed by the diphtheria bacilli could, to a certain extent, be judged by their length.

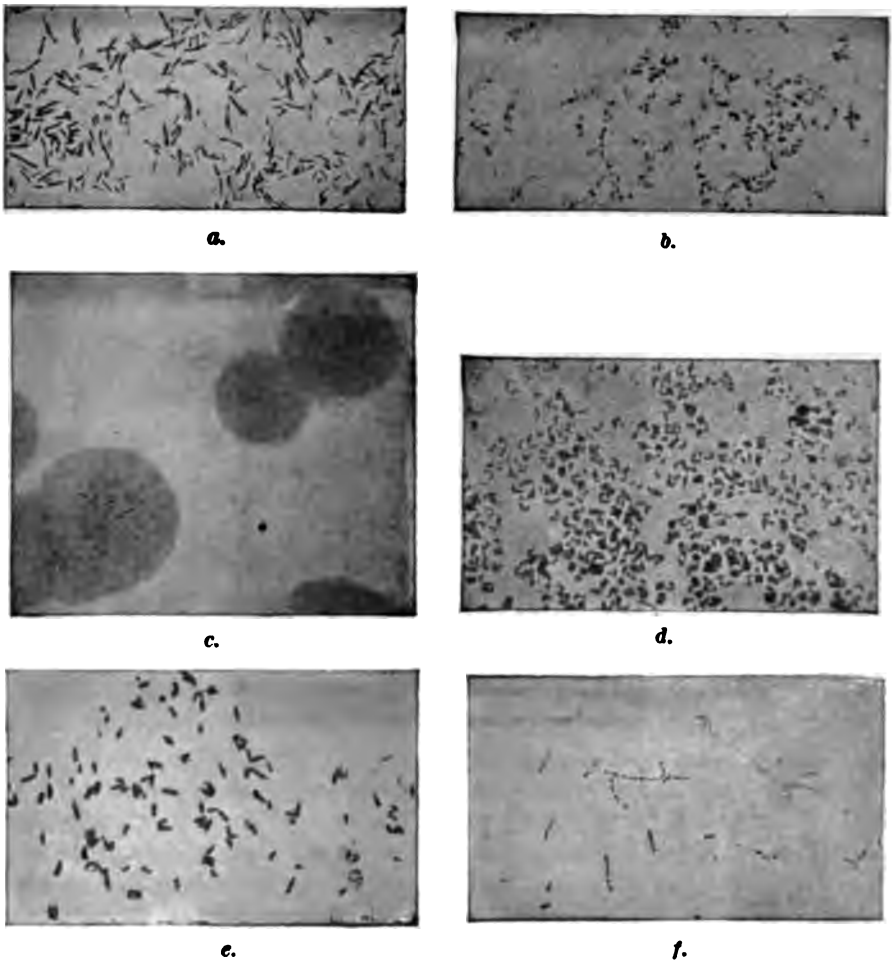

Fig. 160. True and False Diphtheria. (*a*) Diphtheria bacilli X 100; (*b*) characteristic diphtheria bacilli X 1000; (*c*) colonies of diphtheria bacilli X 124; (*d*) even-stained short diphtheria bacilli X 1000; (*e*) pseudo-diphtheria bacilli X 1000; (*f*) streptococci smeared directly upon cover glass from throat exudate X 1000. (After Park.)

The longest bacilli were supposed to be the most virulent; those of medium length less so, and the shortest, little if at all virulent. By observing this characteristic it was thought cultures might become helpful in prognosis.

"The short Klebs-Loeffler bacillus apparently produces a toxin of greater virulency than the larger forms, although the local manifestations may not be so extensive.[1]

"The long Klebs-Loeffler bacillus and the streptococci, when found alone, give rise to a mild type of the disease.

"The streptococcus is found associated with Klebs-Loeffler bacillus in most severe cases. Its special significance is not so clear, but it is possible that by causing a more intense inflammatory reaction it opens avenues by which the toxins of the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus, plus its own toxin, may find more ready entrance into the circulation.

"The apparent beneficial action of the antitoxin of the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus in cases where this bacillus is not present may be due to the fact that though the local action of the different microbes varies to a considerable extent, the action of their toxins, as is shown by the similarity of the constitutional symptoms produced by them, presents many kindred features. The thought therefore arises that the antitoxin of one infection may have an inhibitory effect on the toxin of another."

Very careful notes have been made on this point in the examination of the bacteria from the original serum tubes in the following 1613 cases:—

TABLE No. 48.

	No. of Cases.	Mortality.
Bacilli of average size found in	1398	26 per cent.
Bacilli longer than average in	82	27 per cent.
Bacilli shorter than average in	67	35 per cent.
Bacilli short, not characteristic in shape and evenly stained, of which many were pseudo-diphtheria bacilli.	66	12. per cent.
Number of cases examined	1613	

"The results obtained from this examination of 1613 cultures, therefore, indicate that in New York the great majority of cases of diphtheria yield in cultures bacilli of medium size which are characteristic in shape and manner of staining. In a moderate number of cases the bacilli found are much longer, and in about an equal number they are much shorter. Both the clinical histories and the animal experiments show that whenever in their shape and in the way in which they take the staining fluid the bacilli are characteristic, no information as to their virulence, either in men or animals, can be gathered from their length. Those bacilli, on the other hand, which are short and stain uniformly with methylene blue usually prove to be of the pseudo-diphtheria type, and have no virulence in animals."

Pathology.—The pathological lesions are caused by the specific action of the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus and the associated pathogenic bacteria. In addition thereto the toxins generated by the various micro-organisms produce local destructive changes.

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[1] N. J. Class (N. Y. Medical Journal, May 14, 1897).

As a rule, the local pathological lesion is a whitish, yellowish-white, or grayish-white membrane, which is firmly adherent. In some instances a distinct greenish or black color (gangrenous type) is evident.

In a study of the pathology of 220 fatal cases of diphtheria by Mallory, Councilman, and Pearce they found two varieties of membrane; first, a dense, firm, elastic membrane composed of a reticular structure with considerable uniformity in the size of the beams composing it. This membrane can be stripped off in large flakes. Second, a more friable variety composed of fibrin forming a reticulum with more irregular spaces and fibers. The fibrin spaces contain leucocytes, amongst which are found some broken down cells (detritus). The epithelium below the membrane contains polynuclear leucocytes and lymphocytes.

The interval lesions of diphtheria are those resulting from degenerative changes affecting organic structures. As a rule, hæmorrhages are found in addition to marked degeneration. The lymph nodes are usually swollen and contain small foci of cell-necrosis. Broncho-pneumonia, if present, shows the usual lesions common to this condition. The nervous system, heart, spleen, lungs, and liver show the most destructive effect of the toxins of diphtheria.

TABLE NO. 49.—*Two hundred and nine cases of Diphtheria studied by Councilman, Mallory, and Pearce, of Boston, in 1901, showing the percentage of cases in which the different bacteria were found by culture*

	Heart's Blood.	Liver.	Spleen.	Kidneys.
Diphtheria Bacillus	6 per cent	20 per cent.	12 per cent.	19 per cent.
Streptococcus	20 "	30 "	27 "	28 "
Staphylococcus Aureus	2.5 "	4 "	3 "	8 "
Pneumococcus	1.5 "	2.5 "	1.5 "	5 "

The Blood.—John S. Billings, Jr.,[1] says:—

1. The red corpuscles of the blood in diphtheria undergo a diminution in number in cases of moderate severity and in severe cases. Regeneration is slow.

2. The leucocytes are increased in numbers in all but two classes of cases, exceptionally mild cases and exceptionally severe ones. As a rule, the amount of leucocytosis is directly proportionate to the degree of severity of the case. The leucocyte-curve shows no correspondence to the clinical course of the disease. The number of leucocytes often remains higher than normal for days after all inflammation has disappeared. The leucocytosis is similar in character to that seen in pneumonia and scarlet fever, the the leucocytes being in the so-called polynuclear forms.

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[1] Report, Health Department, 1897.

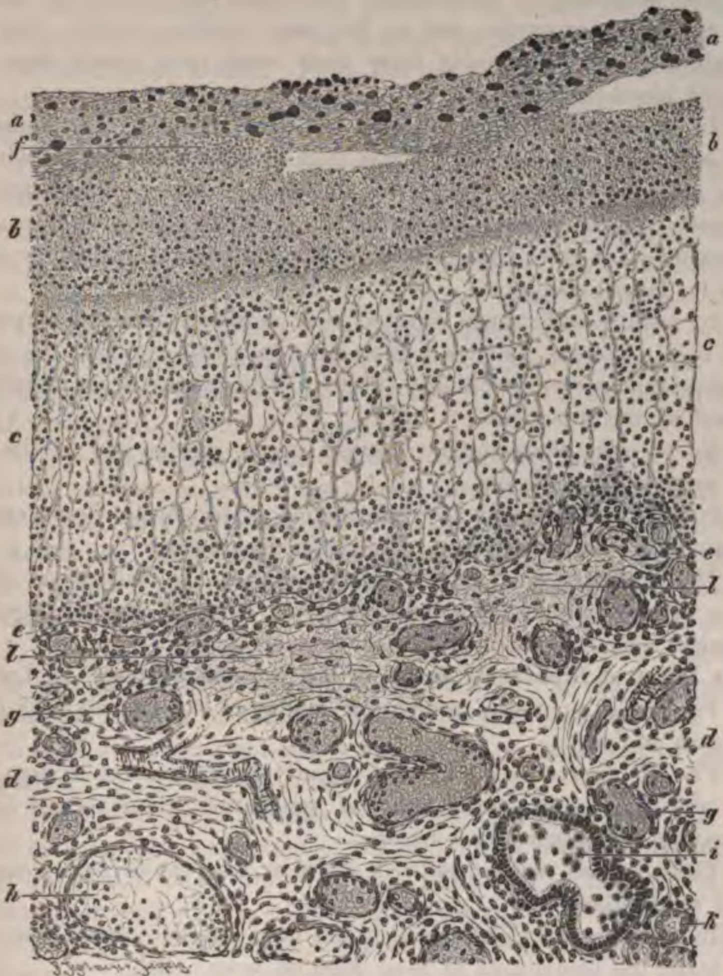

Fig. 161.—Section from an inflamed uvula covered with a stratified fibrinous membrane, from a case of diphtheritic croup of the pharyngeal organs (Müller's fluid, hæmatoxylin, eosin). *(a)* Surface layer of coagulum, consisting of epithelial plates and fibrin and containing numerous colonies of cocci; *(b)* second layer of coagulum, consisting of fine-meshed fibrin network enclosing leucocytes; *(c)* third layer of coagulum, lying upon the connective tissue, and consisting of a wide meshed reticulum of fibrin enclosing leucocytes; *(d)* connective tissue infiltrated with cells; *(e)* infiltrated boundary layer of the connective tissue of the mucous membrane; *(f)* heaps of red blood-cells; *(g)* widely dilated blood-vessels; *(h)* dilated lymph-vessels filled with fluid, fibrin, and leucocytes; *(i)* duct of a mucous gland distended with secretion; *(k)* transverse section of a gland; *(l)* fibrin reticulum in the superficial layer of connective tissue. X45. (Ziegler.)

3. The percentage of hæmoglobin falls coincidently with the number of the red blood-corpuscles, and to the same relative degree. But the regeneration of the hæmoglobin takes place much more slowly than that of the red blood-corpuscles.

4. In cases treated with antitoxin the diminution in the number of the red corpuscles is much less marked than in those cases treated without it; in a majority of cases no such diminution takes place. The leucocytes are apparently unaffected by the antitoxin. The hæmoglobin is also much less affected in the cases treated with antitoxin, thus confirming the statement as to the red corpuscles.

5. In healthy individuals injected with antitoxin, the red corpuscles show a very moderate reduction in number in about one-half the cases. The hæmoglobin is correspondingly affected. The leucocytes are apparently unaffected by the injections.

6. No peculiar characteristic changes in the morphology of the corpuscles were to be made out.

7. It is improbable that any information of prognostic importance is to be gained by the examination of blood in diphtheria.

8. The antitoxin treatment of diphtheria has no deleterious effects upon the blood-corpuscles. On the contrary, it seems to prevent degenerative changes which would otherwise be brought about.

The Effect of Diphtheria Toxin on the Nervous System.—E. Luisada and D. Pacchioni[1] report the results of a number of experiments with diphtheria toxin on dogs:—

1. The diphtheria toxins applied directly to the nervous system provoke a profound lesion at the point of application, characterized by an inflammatory and degenerative action.

2. These lesions are propagated more or less extensively from the point of application.

3. In non-immunized dogs, which had been injected with a dose sufficiently toxic, the phenomena of local reaction were noted.

4. In immunized dogs the toxins constantly produced alterations in the central nervous system, intense, localized, but of less extent than those produced in dogs non-immunized.

5. The toxin applied directly to the medulla is propagated rapidly in all directions, preferring the posterior columns, the gray matter, and the central canal, as routes. In consequence of the bulbar invasion death occurred in the animals more rapidly when the toxins were introduced into the medulla than when applied to any other portion of the cerebro-spinal axis. When the toxins were introduced into the cerebral cortex, characteristic lesions of these regions were manifested. Death occurred later through propagation of the poison to the medulla.

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[1] Giornale della R. Accademia di Medicina di Torino, vol. lxi.

6. Toxins introduced into the sheath of the sciatic nerve provoked an inflammatory process more or less intense, but more circumscribed than in the central nervous system. From the nerves the poison ascended to the medulla, chiefly through the posterior columns, and thus provoked an ascending myelitis.

7. The lesions produced upon the neuroglia by direct action of the toxins are similar to those reported by Vassale, Donaggio, and others in the various intoxications and infective processes. In the oblongata the prevalent alterations are found in the crossed pyramidal tracts and posterior columns.

8. The alterations produced by the toxins affect the nerve fibers more than any other part of the nervous tissue. These lesions affect principally the myelin, and consist of a physical modification of it, whereby the connections between the various nerves are lost. There is partially a chemical modification of the myelin also present.

9. The local action of the toxins has much importance in the genesis of various paralyses as seen in the human family, attacking first the sheaths of the nerves, then the nerves, and later the nerve centers of the medulla.

Action of Diphtheria Poison on the Heart.—F. Rolly, first assistant to the children's clinic at Heidelberg, as the result of a series of experiments on animals with the diphtheria toxin,[1] concludes that:—

1. The fall in blood-pressure induced by the poison of diphtheria is due to paralysis of the vasomotor center, and also to the paralysis of the heart, which in spite of artificial respiration soon ceases to beat.

2. This action on the heart is direct, and in warm-blooded animals is independent of the nervous system.

3. The paralysis of the heart develops after a more or less definite latent period. Direct injection of the diphtherial poison or transfusion of lethal diphtherial blood interferes with the action of the isolated normal rabbit's heart only after a certain latent period.

4. On the other hand, the action of the poison takes place at the same time, even if, before the appearance of poisonous symptoms or at the beginning of such toxic action, the heart is washed out with normal blood.

5. This property possessed by the diphtheria poison of action on the heart leads to the opinion that the poison gradually takes hold of the heart muscles, and is seemingly stored up there until its complete action is manifest; this further explains the continuance of functional heart disturbances after many of the acute infections.

Symptoms and Course.—Considering the clinical picture of this disease, the following classification would appear most plausible:—

1. *Mild diphtheria.*
2. *Severe diphtheria.*
3. *Septic diphtheria.*

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[1] "Archiv für experimentelle Pathologie u. Pharmakologie," 42, 1899.

Mild diphtheria usually commences with symptoms of malaise. The appetite is poor; the tongue is coated, and the lymph glands at both sides of the jaw are swollen. The pharynx is reddened. The mucous membrane is swollen and the tonsils are covered with small, grayish-yellow plaques, which adhere very firmly. On attempting to remove a piece of membrane a bleeding surface remains. This membrane peels off gradually, but leaves a red line of demarcation on the tonsils. A close study of the tonsil will show the former size of this pseudo-membrane. Usually the color of the pharynx returns to normal; sometimes it is rather anæmic, and after a few days the scar will show the presence of the former affection. When, however, this condition does not resolve in a few days, then there is always danger of a systemic infection. A small, apparently innocent patch on the tonsil or pharynx should be as vigorously treated as a general septic infection. In other words, the danger of a small patch extending to the larynx should not be forgotten. Other forms of local affections are: Sometimes the lips or the nose, the mucous membrane of the mouth, the tongue, the vagina, and the skin are the seat of a diphtheritic infection. Not infrequently diphtheria affects the umbilicus. Such diphtheritic omphalitis is exceedingly dangerous and frequently fatal. Rhinitis, especially in young infants, is frequently a diphtheritic process, although resembling an ordinary "cold in the head." The sudden appearance of croup will frequently cause a fatal termination if neglected.

Severe Diphtheria.—This condition usually commences with fever. The temperature varies between 101° and 102° F. If children are old enough they will complain of chills. It is not uncommon to have convulsions. The cheeks are usually flushed; in some instances they are very pale. The mucous membrane of the mouth is reddened. The pharynx has a dark-red color. The tonsils are swollen. Both tonsils are intensely congested and covered with a yellowish or yellowish-gray membrane. The uvula is usually involved. There is pain on swallowing and a decided nasal tone of voice. The submaxillary glands are swollen. The nose discharges an acrid fluid containing yellowish shreds or flakes. In many cases after careful treatment the appetite returns. The diphtheritic patches are limited in area. The intense swelling and congestion fades. The mucous membrane appears and the swelling of the submaxillary glands subsides, so that conditions resume their normal state. On the other hand, the affection may spread from the pharynx and involve the velum palatinum and extend downward so that the larynx is involved, causing stenosis and other serious symptoms.

Septic Diphtheria.—In this type of diphtheria the resemblance to a typhoidal condition associated with profound toxæmia is noted. In septic diphtheria the general manifestations resemble a severe form of typhoid. The tongue is shining and dry. The submaxillary glands are very much swollen. The children appear puffed, and the face has a pale, waxy appearance. The extremities are cool. The heart sounds are weak, sometimes inaudible. The pulse is small, sometimes thready, and can be counted with difficulty. There is severe constipation, rarely diarrhœa. The brain is clear, although the children appear in a semi-comatose condition, moaning and with mouth open. The urine is diminished and contains albumin and also epithelium. There is a general apathetic condition, with cardiac weakness. In other instances there is a decided hæmorrhagic tendency. Hæmorrhagic spots appear on the skin. The urine is bloody. The stools contain blood.

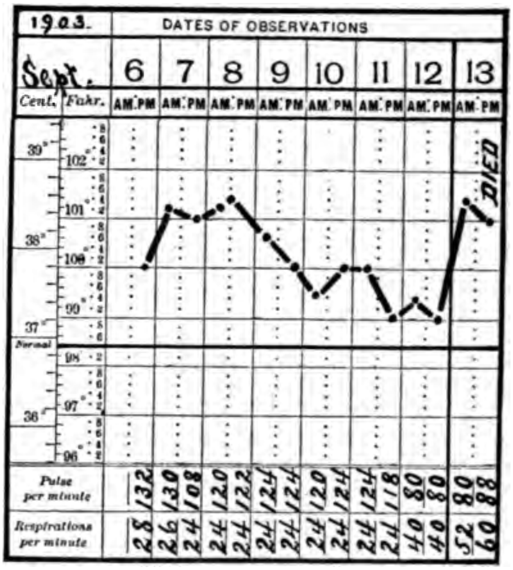


Fig. 162.—Septic Type of Diphtheria Complicated by Myocarditis. The effect of the poison is shown on the heart. Note the pulse-rate, low temperature and the respiration. (Original.)

Epistaxis is frequent. There is a general somnolence. A tendency to collapse, ending fatally.

The diagnosis depends on the presence of a membranous exudate covering the tonsils and pharynx. This type of disease is usually associated with nasal diphtheria. There is a foul-smelling discharge, sometimes a marked gangrenous odor, from both nose and mouth. When the membrane exfoliates it is not uncommon to have severe epistaxis. The temperature ranges between 100° and 101°; at times subnormal temperatures are encountered. There is a tendency to collapse.

Nasal Diphtheria.—The nasal infection may be an extension from the pharynx upward, or the disease may be confined to the nose and localized there. Vigorous treatment should be installed early in the disease. Owing to the large amount of lymphoid tissue in the naso-pharynx, the tendency to profound toxæmia from absorption should be remembered, and the toxin inhibited by early and active treatment.

When there is a general infection, then greater attention should be paid to the condition of the *heart.* The pulse is usually small and thready. The heart sounds are feeble; sometimes they are muffled. In other instances there is a tachycardia. The extremities are usually cold. If these

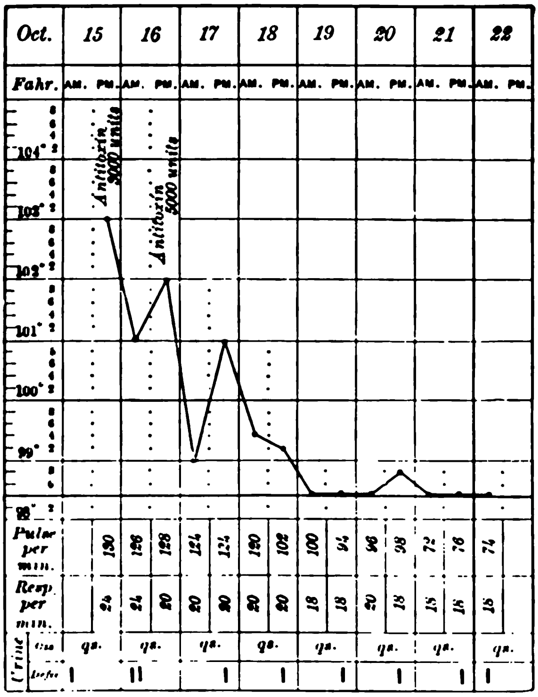


Fig. 163. Case of Nasal Diphtheria. George P. Willard Parker Hospital. Injected with 3000 units of antitoxin on the 15th, and 5000 on the 17th. (Original.)

symptoms do not subside, and the affection spreads, then there may be later a total absence of the patellar reflexes. There may also be vomiting, a decided apathetic condition, and a slowing of the heart's action (bradycardia).

George P., aged 7½ years, admitted to the Willard Parker Hospital Oct. 15th; ill two days. General condition, fair. No pseudomembrane was visible in the throat. The cervical glands were very much enlarged. There was a serosanguineous discharge from the nose; besides, the entrance to the nostrils appeared angry and excoriated. Bacteriological examination showed Klebs Loeffler bacilli. Patient was allowed out of bed October 22d.

PLATE XXIII

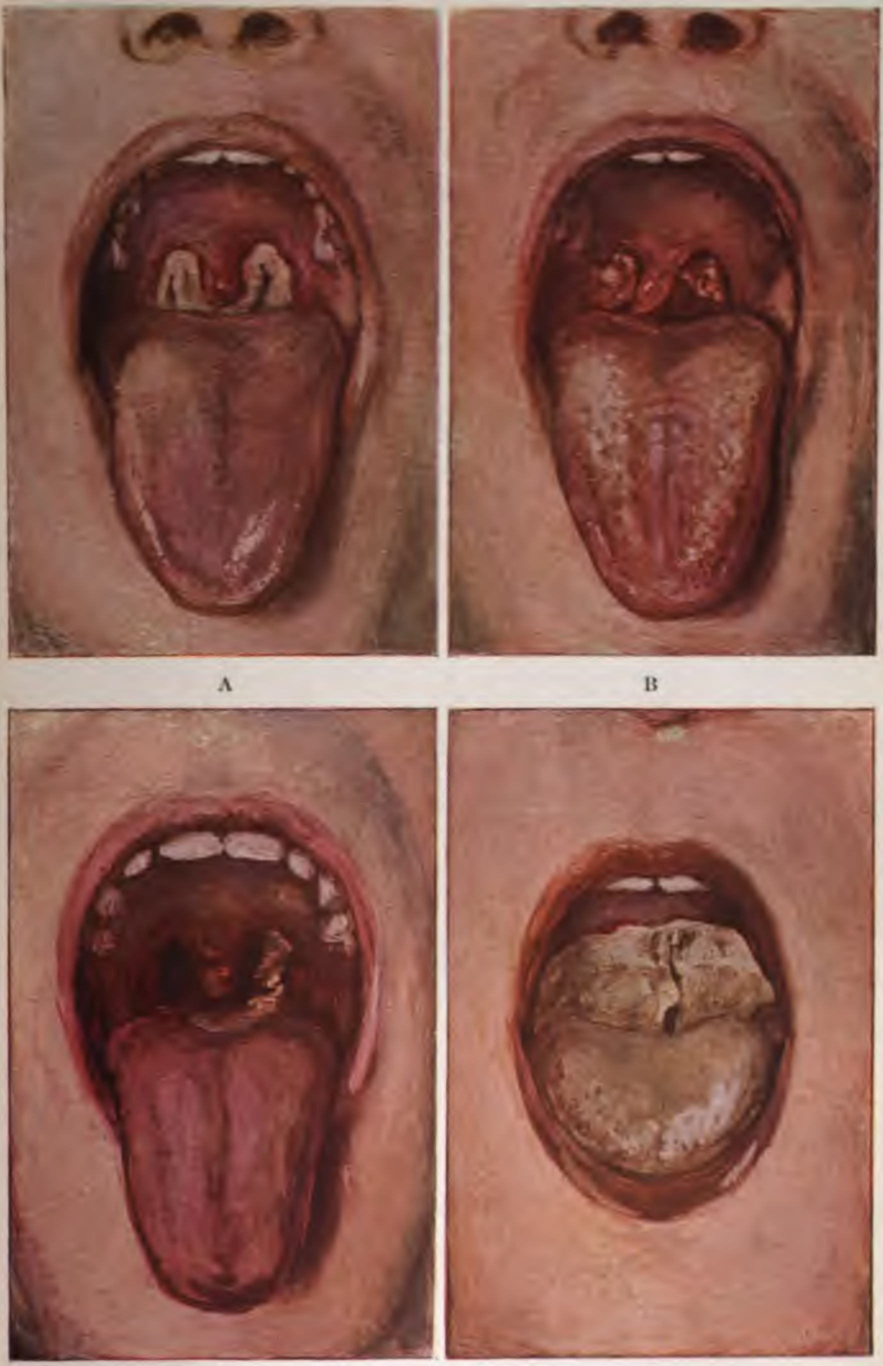
Case A.—Common Type of Diphtheria. Child three years old. Seen on fourth day of illness at the Willard Parker Hospital. Exudate covering tonsils, pharynx, and uvula. Received in all 16,000 units of antitoxin. Throat clear on sixth day. Case discharged cured. (Original.)

Case B.—Follicular Type of Diphtheria. Child seven years old. Seen on second day of illness at the Willard Parker Hospital. The membrane involved the lacunæ of the tonsils. Note the close resemblance to follicular tonsillitis. Received in all 6,000 units of antitoxin. (Original.)

Case C.—Hæmorrhagic Type of Diphtheria. Child seven and one-half years old. Seen on sixth day of illness at the Willard Parker Hospital. Tonsillar and post-pharyngeal exudate. Severe nasal and post-pharyngeal hæmorrhages during exfoliation of membrane. Received in all 15,000 units of antitoxin. Throat clear on ninth day of illness. Myocarditis developed. Case discharged cured four weeks after admission. (Original.)

Case D.—Septic Type of Diphtheria. Child eight years old. Seen on the fifth day of illness at the Willard Parker Hospital. The pseudomembrane in this case covered the hard palate and extended in one large mass down the pharynx, completely hiding the tonsils. (Original.)

PLATE XXIII



A

B

C

D

The liver is usually very much enlarged and feels very hard on palpation. In other cases there will be marked diminution in the quantity of urine. When urine is scanty and contains casts and blood, showing a diffuse nephritis, then it is not rare to find convulsions of a uræmic character, resulting fatally. The sudden appearance of diarrhœa is frequently a very serious symptom, resulting in collapse and ending fatally.

In other instances continuous crying may be the forerunner of earache resulting in suppuration. Not infrequently moist râles and bronchial breathing show evidences of broncho-pneumonia areas in the lungs, so that the general infection of a child with diphtheria should be dreaded, owing to the danger of complications associating themselves with the primary condition.

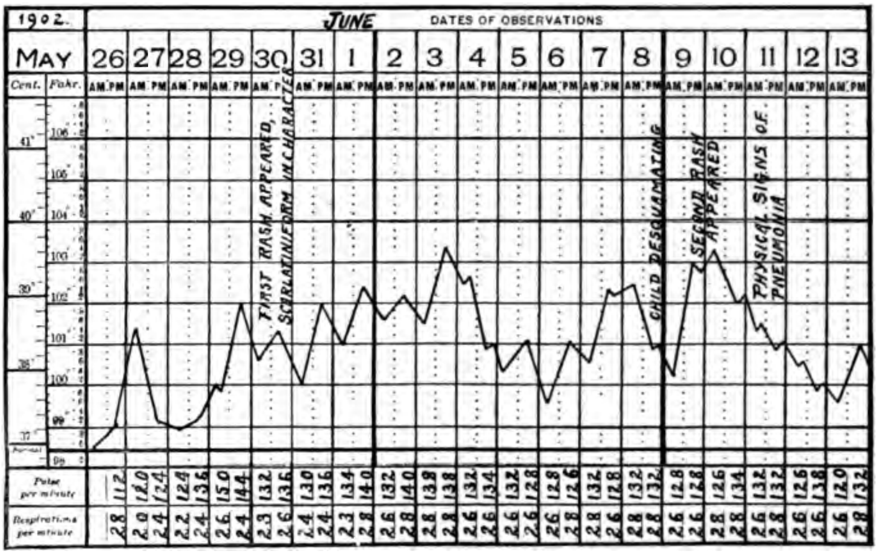


Fig. 164.—Broncho-pneumonia Complicating Diphtheria. Antitoxin rash scarlatinal in character appeared four days after injection. Second eruption appeared ten days later. Note peculiarity of temperature curve. Severe croup required intubation. Child remained well for thirty-two days after second intubation, then severe croup appeared and required intubation. In all, seven intubations were required. Child discharged cured. (Original.)

FOLLICULAR FORMS.

The crypts or follicles are frequently the seat of a diphtheritic infection. Small, yellowish-white or grayish-white membranes visible as pin-point deposits will be seen. This variety is frequently styled lacunar diphtheria.

Rashes.—Very frequently rashes follow the injection of antitoxin. These rashes are of an erythematous character:—

TABLE No. 50.—*Observations on a Series of 350 Cases of Antitoxin Rashes at the Willard Parker Hospital. Site of their First Appearance, Day of Invasion after Initial Dose, and Persistence of Rashes.*

Erythematous rashes	109
Punctiform	19
Urticarial	223

Erythematous rash on face	9
Erythematous rash on buttocks	11
Erythematous rash on upper extremities	18
Erythematous rash on lower extremities	7
Erythematous rash on body	64

Punctiform rashes on body	18
Punctiform rashes on upper extremities	1

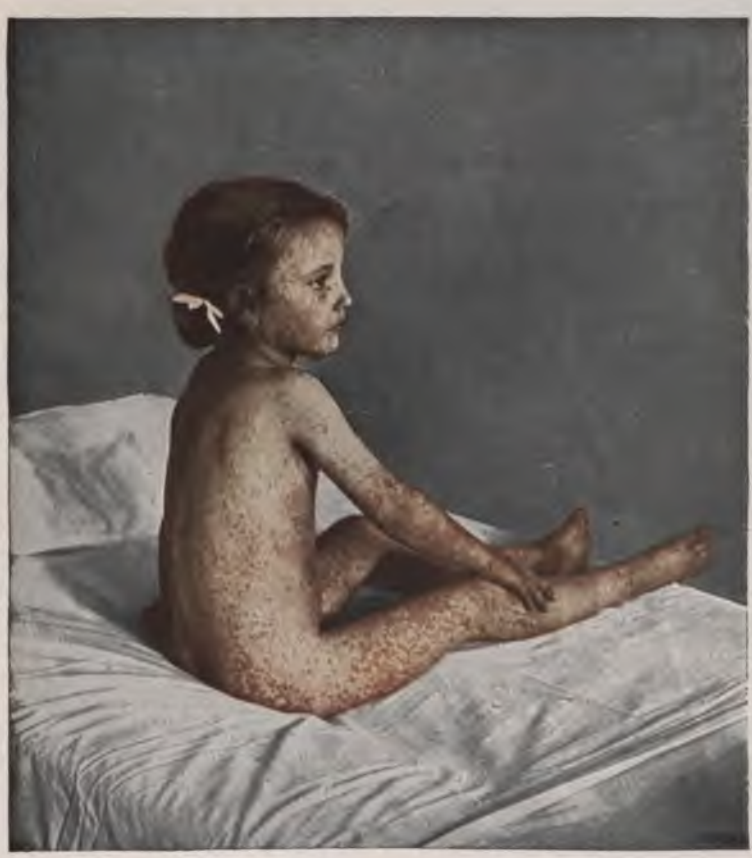
Urticarial rashes on face	18
Urticarial rashes on buttocks	18
Urticarial rashes on upper extremities	41
Urticarial rashes on lower extremities	30
Urticarial rashes on body	128

Rashes appearing on first day	6
Rashes appearing on second day	39
Rashes appearing on third day	30
Rashes appearing on fourth day	27
Rashes appearing on fifth day	34
Rashes appearing on sixth day	35
Rashes appearing on seventh day	28
Rashes appearing on eighth day	25
Rashes appearing on ninth day	14
Rashes appearing on tenth day	12
Rashes appearing on eleventh day	1
Rashes appearing on twelfth day	4
Rashes appearing on thirteenth day	3
Rashes appearing on fourteenth day	2
Rashes appearing on fifteenth day	1
Rashes appearing on sixteenth day	2
Rashes appearing on eighteenth day	1
Rashes appearing on twentieth day	1
Rashes appearing on twenty-first day	1
Rashes appearing on twenty-seventh day	1

Persistence of Antitoxin Rashes.

Rashes lasting one day	17
Rashes lasting two days	174
Rashes lasting three days	55
Rashes lasting four days	3
Rashes lasting five days	6
Rashes lasting six days	2
Rashes lasting eight days	1
Rashes lasting nine days	1

PLATE XXIV



Lizzie F., 5 years old, was admitted to the Willard Parker Hospital in September, 1904. She was ill seven days before admission. Diphtheria was present on both tonsils. There was slight glandular swelling. The general systemic condition was poor. The temperature was 101° F., pulse 126, respiration 24. The child received 5000 units of antitoxin on admission, and on the following day a second injection of 4000 units. Four days after the second injection of antitoxin, the throat cleared so that no membrane was visible. Two days later, or six days after the second antitoxin injection, a universal rash appeared on the face, chest, abdomen, back, and extremities. This rash was morbilliform in character and persisted for twenty-two days, although it was chiefly confined to the arms and legs. No complications followed. The child left the hospital in excellent condition. (Original.)

C. Hartung quotes a number of European observers, who found an antitoxin rash in 11.4 per cent of 2661 cases. Berg found that rash in 82 cases out of 337, or 24 per cent. This condition is described in detail in Nothnagel's Encyclopædia, pages 153-162.

While Northrup reports 147 cases of rash occurring between the seventh and twelfth day, other observers report the rash as occurring much earlier. In the series above reported the largest number of rashes occurred on the second and third day after the injection. I have frequently seen an antitoxin rash several hour after the injection was given, while the majority of rashes were fully developed on the second day.

The following case illustrates the rapidity with which a rash may appear:—

Laurence S., aged 4 years. Admitted September 8, 1903, to the Willard Parker Hospital, on the third day of illness. He was in a poor condition when admitted. He was intubated about one-half hour before being admitted to the hospital. Slight retraction present. Membranes on right tonsil. Profuse nasal discharge.

The physical examination was negative. The heart regular and of good force; 4000 units of antitoxin, of serum (horse) 220, were given when admitted. There was no rash present when the antitoxin was injected. *Seven minutes after the antitoxin injection* the patient had a profuse rash all over the chest, extending from the fifth ribs to clavicles. The rash and flush were most marked in the area corresponding to the place of injection. The tongue was heavily coated. Could not take much nourishment. Grew gradually worse. Died September 9th.

Site of the Eruption.—A large flush is frequently seen on the parts around the point of injection, from whence it spreads over the body. It is most frequently seen, however, on the abdomen, chest, and buttocks; less frequently at the wrists, knees, and ankles. The face and neck are seldom involved. It sometimes covers the back as well as the buttocks. There is intense itching and occasionally the children complain of intense pain in the joints.

Fever usually precedes the eruption.

Constitutional symptoms, such as vomiting, diarrhœa, headache, muscular pains, and general malaise, are noted. Not infrequently when hyperpyrexia exists there is delirium or convulsions (Sevestre and Martin).

ANAPHYLAXIS.

When we inject the first dose of horse serum we sensitize the guinea pig or rabbit, and the serum which was innocuous to the animal before the first injection was given has now made the animal so hypersensitive that the second injection of the same serum is not only very poisonous, but may result fatally. Such sensitive reaction when found in human beings is called anaphylaxis.

Richet demonstrated the fact that, although an animal could be sensitized to an injection of a non-toxic dose of serum, a second injection of a minimal quantity after a certain interval proved fatal. Later Arthus, using horse serum, obtained similar phenomena. Von Pirquet and Schick, working along similar lines, first definitely classified the symptom complex which develops after the injection of therapeutic sera as serum disease. They interpreted this as a reaction to a specific foreign protein. Briefly, the symptoms are as follows: Various skin manifestations of urticarial or erythema multiforme type, fever, œdema, and pain in the joints. They occur usually after a definite period of incubation of eight to twelve days.

When such individuals are re-injected the incubation period is reduced to a few hours. A local reaction, called the Arthus phenomenon, is present at the point of injection. The general symptoms are of short duration and sometimes accompanied by collapse. For this clinical picture von Pirquet has coined the word "allergy." The sensitizing substance itself has been named allergen, which from the findings of Rosenau and Anderson is identical with the toxic substance of serum. It has been shown that the anaphylactic reaction is a specific one, *e.g.*, guinea pigs sensitized with horse serum do not react against other albuminous bodies, such as egg albumin or milk. It has been demonstrated that acquired susceptibility can be transmitted by heredity.

Nicolle and Otto have shown that a condition of passive anaphylaxis could be induced by treating a normal animal with the serum of an anaphylacticized animal. Although in animal experimentation in the vast majority of instances results are obtained by injection, Rosenau and Anderson succeeded by feeding animals in obtaining the reaction by way of the alimentary canal.

Wolff-Eisner believes that the phenomena of anaphylaxis are of central origin, so that individuals with an unstable vasomotor system are especially predisposed to the more severe forms of hypersensitiveness. Thus, asthma, urticaria, fibrinous bronchitis, and membranous enteritis are all related in their symptomatology. He alludes to vasomotor irritability, which causes eosinophile secretions, the fibrinous exudate, and the spastic condition as well. That there may be some relationship between the anaphylactic condition and a disturbance of the internal secretions has been discussed recently by Hoffmann. He argues because urticaria and hay fever or asthma are frequently associated in hyperthyroidism therefore the glands of internal secretion must influence the vessel-tone by their products, giving rise to anaphylactic manifestations.

The Prevention of Anaphylactic Shock.—According to Bedreska, if the serum to be injected is heated to 56° C., or 133° F., then not only can the phenomena be diminished, but, as a rule, averted.

According to Vaughn, if a preliminary injection of as little as 0.1 or

0.2 c.c. of serum should be made and no serious symptoms follow within two hours, the full dose can then be given.

Asthmatics are very sensitive. A hypodermic injection of atropine will be useful to prevent anaphylactic shock in a patient supposed to be unduly sensitive to the phenomena of anaphylaxis.

Desquamation.—A very fine, mealy desquamation follows the antitoxin rash. It is similar to the measles desquamation (Berg). A rash resembling measles never has the catarrhal symptoms which we always note in genuine measles. If, however, we are in doubt regarding the true nature of the rash, it is well to isolate and await results rather than to expose children to the risk of infection.

Diagnosis.—The diagnosis of diphtheria affecting the pharynx, tonsils, and nares with visible membranes is quite easily made. When, however, the disease affects the lower respiratory tract, the larynx, trachea, or bronchi, the diagnosis will be rendered more difficult. The crucial test consists in taking a culture and noting the bacteriological result. The presence of the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus means diphtheria, especially if the glands of the neck are swollen.

We must not infer that if the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus is not found our case is of a non-diphtheritic character. A technical error, such as swabbing a healthy surface instead of an infected area, may be the cause of a negative result. *Not infrequently in the most malignant forms of diphtheria, nothing but a streptococcus can be found. This is especially true when complications such as broncho-pneumonia are met with.*

Bacteriological Diagnosis.—Directions for Inoculating Culture Tubes with the Exudate in Cases of Suspected Diphtheria: The child should be placed in a good light, and properly held. Remove the swab from its tube. Depress the tongue with a spoon in the left hand. With the swab in the right hand rub firmly but gently against any visible membrane on the tonsils or in the pharynx. Withdraw the cotton plug from the culture tube. Insert the swab, and rub it thoroughly but gently back and forth over the entire surface of the blood serum. Do not allow the swab to touch anything except the throat of the patient and the surface of the serum. Do not push the swab into the serum or break the surface in any way. Replace the swab in its own tube; plug both tubes; fill out the blank forms which accompany each tube, and send to a culture station.[1]

Out of 1857 cases of diphtheria admitted to the Willard Parker Hospital during 1910, 426 showed negative cultures on admission, and 1431 showed positive cultures on admission. The total number of croup cases admitted was 403.

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[1] The New York Department of Health has a series of culture stations in various drug stores. At these stations sterile culture tubes are supplied to the physician and the same are also collected daily after inoculation. The Department of Health furnishes material, including examination and report, free of charge.

533 cases showed tonsillar exudate.
348 cases showed laryngeal exudate.
160 cases showed tonsillar and pharyngeal exudate.
39 cases showed tonsillar, pharyngeal, and nasal exudate.
36 cases showed pharyngeal exudate.
23 cases showed nasal exudate.

If there is no visible membrane (it may be present in the nose or pharynx) the swab should be thoroughly rubbed over the mucous membrane of the pharynx and tonsils, and in nasal cases, when possible, a culture should also be made from the nose. In little children care should be taken not to use the swab when the throat contains food or vomited matter, as then the bacterial examination is rendered more difficult. Under no consideration should any attempt be made to collect the material shortly after the application of disinfectants (especially solutions of corrosive sublimate) to the throat. If any of these instructions have not been carried out, the fact should be carefully noted on the record blank.

Welch says: "The mere presence of the diphtheria bacilli in the throat of a patient no more proves that he has diphtheria than the presence of the pneumococcus in his saliva establishes the fact that he has pneumonia. The only decisive method, as claimed with much justice by Runge, is control experiments in the way of animal inoculations."

If a croupy cough is heard and associated with it a small, diphtheritic membrane is seen on the tonsils, pharynx, or in the nose, the diagnosis of diphtheria can positively be made.

Differential Diagnosis.—In the very beginning of the disease, before the appearance of a pseudo-membrane, the diagnosis is beset with difficulty. Thus, an acute catarrhal angina will show symptoms similar to those of diphtheria.

Pre-membranous Diphtheria.—When a child has been exposed to diphtheria, the careful daily inspection of the nose and throat is demanded. At the slightest rise of temperature associated with an intense congestion of the pharynx and tonsils, antitoxin should be injected.

The diagnosis of diphtheria can usually be made twenty-four to forty-eight hours before the membranes are visible. A culture should always be taken, but too much reliance must not be placed on the bacteriological findings, because the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus may have invaded the deeper structures and not be present on the surface; therefore, cultures should be taken daily until the disease can positively be excluded. The cervical glands are usually swollen.

Thrush sometimes resembles diphtheria, but can be differentiated by the fact that the small, whitish spots resembling curdled milk are scattered over the cheeks, lips, tongue, and gums, in addition to the uvula and pharynx.

Ulcerative tonsillitis[1] resembling diphtheria has been described by Vincent. In this condition there is no tendency to spread. There is an absence of croup, and a culture taken shows the Vincent bacillus instead of the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus.

Peritonsillar Abscess.—In this condition we meet with a swelling or bulging forward of the affected parts. The uvula is sometimes displaced. There are very many active local symptoms, such as pain and difficulty in swallowing, and a nasal tone of voice. Not infrequently when an attempt to swallow is made the fluid regurgitates through the nose. When children are old enough to describe subjective symptoms, they will complain of chills and fever. The temperature is usually high, ranging from 102° to 105° F. The active symptoms subside the moment pus is relieved. Nature frequently gives a spontaneous evacuation of the pus. At other times it is wiser to give relief by making an incision and emptying the pus. A culture taken in this condition does not show the presence of the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus.

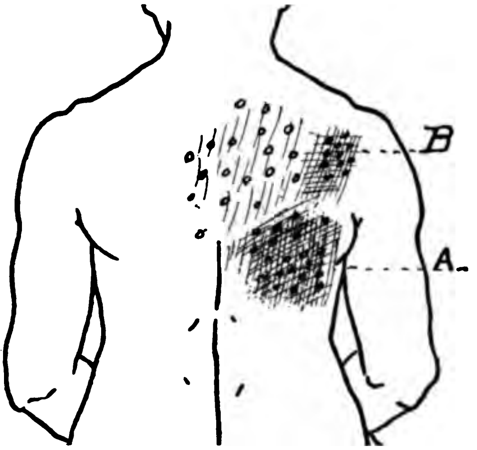

Fig. 165.—Pneumonia Complicating Diphtheria. (Kind assistance of Dr. Edward H. Sparkman, Jr., at the Willard Parker Hospital.) *A.* Starting point of pneumonia, showing extent on third day. *B.* Focus which developed three days after *A*, showing extent on third day of the new focus. (Original.)

Follicular Tonsillitis.—In this condition more than in any other form of disease we must be careful regarding a positive opinion. There are follicular forms of diphtheria involving the lacunæ of the tonsils which clinically so resemble diphtheria that even an expert cannot differentiate them.

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[1] Read article on "Tonsillitis."

Table No. 51.—*Complications Observed at the Willard Parker Hospital.*

	1910	1911
Number of Cases	**1857**	**1558**
Eye Complications.		
Conjunctivitis (Catarrhal)	105	51
Conjunctivitis (Diphtheritic)	7	3
Ear Complications.		
Mastoiditis (Operative)	2	
Otitis Media	135	112
Nasal Complications.		
Paralysis	8	13
Throat Complications.		
Paralysis (Pharyngeal)	112	28
Peritonsillar Abscess	14	9
Cervical Adenitis	318	101
Pulmonary Complications.		
Broncho-pneumonia	334	201
Lobar Pneumonia	6	5
Empyema	5	2
Cardiac Complications.		
Pericarditis	2	2
Myocarditis	110	100
Endocarditis	..	40
General Complications.		
Nephritis	20	30
Delirium	51	10
Vaginitis	110	129
Arthritis	5	6
Convulsions	5	5
Syphilis	1	

The clinical manifestations of the benign form of follicular tonsillitis have already been described in the article on "Follicular Tonsillitis."

The differential diagnosis depends on the presence or absence of the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus.

Complications.[1] The most frequent complication met with is *broncho-pneumonia.* More deaths occur from this than from any other complication. It is usually the extension of the disease from the larynx to the bronchi. When a septic form of diphtheria exists broncho-pneumonia usually accompanies it. (See chapter on "Pneumonia.")

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[1] For a detailed description of the various complications, the reader is referred to the special articles on "Otitis," "Empyema," etc.

Pleurisy with serous effusion frequently complicates this disease.

Empyema not infrequently complicates. A number of these cases have been seen by me during my service at the Willard Parker Hospital.

Otitis is occasionally met with as a complication of diphtheria. It is usually the result of a streptococcus infection through the nose or throat into the Eustachian tube.

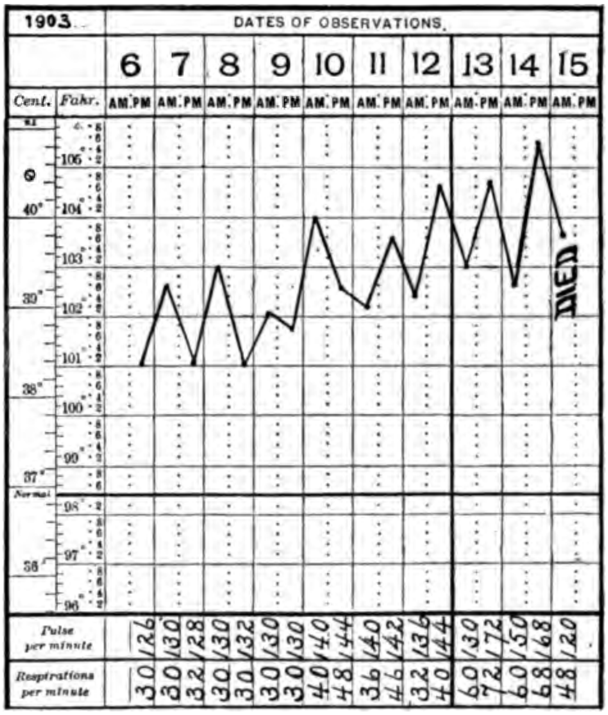

Fig. 166.—Temperature Chart from a Case of Diphtheria complicated by Broncho-pneumonia (Step-ladder Type of Fever). (Original.)

Myocarditis is the most frequent form of heart complication met with in diphtheria.

Endocarditis and pericarditis are also seen in severe types of this disease.

Meningitis is not often seen, though I have seen 3 such cases out of a total of 35 at the Willard Parker Hospital during my service. About 10 per cent. of all septic cases have meningitis.

Cerebral thrombosis and embolism occasionally complicate diphtheria, and result in hemiplegia, convulsions, or aphasia.

Thrombosis of the pulmonary artery of the heart may cause sudden death. This is usually accompanied by feeble heart's action the result of degenerative changes in the muscular walls (Holt).

Hæmorrhages occur quite often. Bleeding from the nose and from the ear, also blood in the urine and blood in the stools, has frequently been seen by me. These cases are of the most severe type and usually end fatally.

When the hæmorrhagic type is seen early, and the toxin in the circulation rapidly neutralized by the intravenous injection of antitoxin, the chances of recovery are greatly increased.

Purpuric spots similar to that form of purpura met with in rheumatism were seen by me in septic cases, all of which ended fatally.

Acute Renal Congestion.—This usually accompanies severe diphtheria. In many instances it is a forerunner of an acute nephritis. The earliest symptoms noted are albumin and red blood cells. At times the urine may be scanty. The toxin filtering through the system attacks the kidneys as well as the heart, and it is important to make daily examinations of the urine, so that nephritis, if present, can readily be detected.

The action of the kidneys during diphtheria is as important as the action of the bowels, because the retention of toxin may result fatally.

If the urine is scanty the temperature will be higher, and, therefore, a mild diuretic, such as 5 to 10 grains of citrate of potassium, is indicated. The application of a warm-water bag over the kidneys also stimulates diuresis. Dry cupping over the kidneys repeated every twelve hours will stimulate the flow of urine. Large quantities of water should be given to flush the kidneys and eliminate toxin.

Nephritis[1] is usually met with in septic cases, although it may follow as a complication of the milder form of this disease. Traces of albumin are frequently found during the course of diphtheria. This does not necessarily imply that we are dealing with nephritis. The presence of casts, in addition to the albumin, or possibly blood, is necessary to strengthen the diagnosis of nephritis.

Diarrhœa due to a follicular ileo-colitis or acute gastric catarrh frequently complicates diphtheria.

Diarrhœa, when present, is nature's method of eliminating toxins and should be looked upon as an aid in cleansing the system rather than as a complication. When diarrhœa is not present and the bowels are constipated, then sufficient hydragogue cathartics, such as calomel or compound jalap powder, should be prescribed to produce loose bowels.

Diphtheritic Gastritis.—When membranous gastritis occurs it is usually a diphtheritic gastritis.

Diphtheritic omphalitis is described in Chapter III, Part II.

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[1] An excellent illustration of nephritis complicating diphtheria is described in the article on "Nephritis."

When *membranous enteritis* complicates diphtheria it is usually the result of a streptococcus or Klebs-Loeffler infection.

Profound anæmia usually follows diphtheria. This is due to the effect of the toxins in the blood causing the destruction of the red corpuscles.

Post-diphtheritic Paralysis.—Toxæmia caused by absorption of the toxins generated by the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus, if not neutralized either by an injection of antitoxin or by Nature's own production of antitoxin, frequently causes paralysis. This paralysis usually affects individual muscles or groups of muscles. In this manner the heart, which is a muscular organ, is frequently paralyzed, resulting in death. When the toxin affects the respiratory centers it may result in paralysis, causing death by asphyxia. In addition to the paralytic effect of this toxin on the muscles and nerves, degenerative changes are brought about by the influence of this poison. Thus it is that the toxin in the system will frequently irritate an otherwise healthy kidney and set up a toxic nephritis.

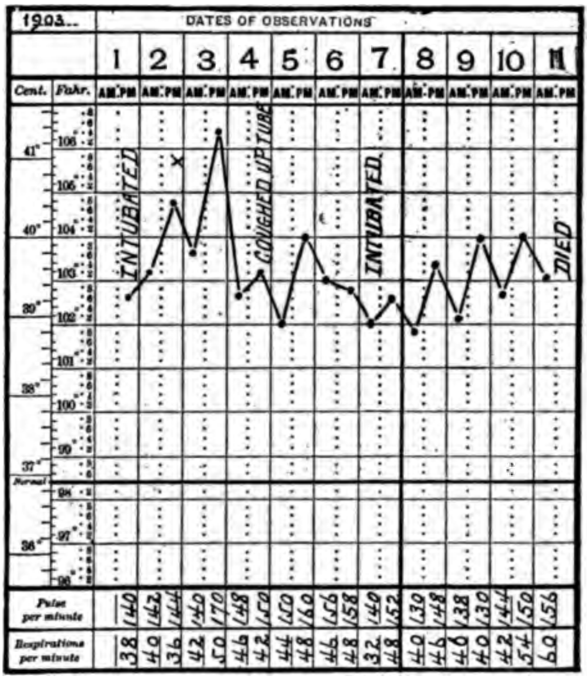

Fig. 167.—Temperature Chart from a Case of Diphtheria complicated by Lobar Pneumonia. (Original.)

From the foregoing we can see that the poison generated by the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus is certainly a serious factor which must be dealt with very energetically.

A study of recorded cases of paralysis shows that between 10 and 30 per cent. of all cases of diphtheria are followed by paralysis. Woodward studied 7832 cases of diphtheria; of these 1362 had post-diphtheritic paralysis. Myers, in the *London Lancet,* 1900, studied 1316 cases of the disease, in which 275 cases, or about 21 per cent., had palsy.

110 cases affected the palate,
69 cases were cardiac,
21 cases diaphragmatic.

There are four palsies due to severe toxæmia; they occur in the following order: palatal, ocular, cardiac, and diaphragmatic.

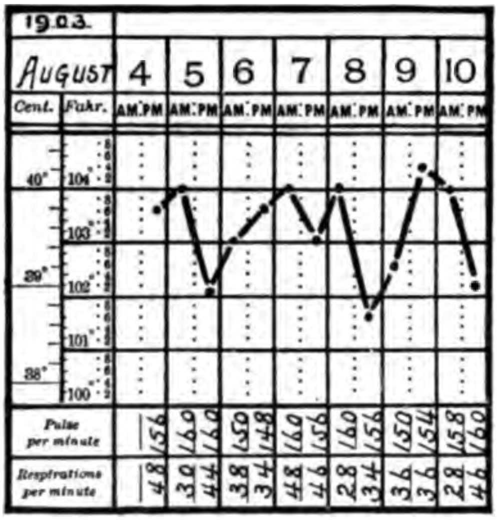

Fig. 168.—Temperature Chart from a Case of Diphtheria complicated by Otitis and Meningitis. Fatal. (Original.)

Paralysis is most frequently found in children between the second and sixth years. Usually during the second week following diphtheria, when the child is convalescent, emaciation of the extremities will be noticed. If the muscles of the trunk are involved, there will be emaciation of the thoracic muscles, regurgitation of liquids through the nose, and a nasal twang in the voice. There is marked difficulty in walking or climbing stairs in other cases; the child waddles and appears weak, falls easily, and staggers as in ataxia. In severe cases the child is unable to raise its head. The sphincter of the rectum and bladder may become paralyzed, resulting in involuntary urination or obstinate constipation.

Paralysis of the extremities may be added to paralysis of the respiratory muscles or of the heart. The knee-jerk may be diminished or absent. The absence of the knee-jerk indicates some change in the peripheral neuron. The *special heart symptoms* indicating cardiac paralysis are irregularity of heart's action or a gallop rhythm, bradycardia, tachycardia, lowering of the temperature (usually subnormal), vomiting; dilatation of the heart, a short first sound with systolic murmur at apex, blueness of the lips, and cold extremities.

"Monicatide divided diphtheritic paralysis into four groups: Those showing (1) purely muscular change without nerve involvement; (2) polyneuritis; (3) lesions of the spinal cord, which were either localized in the gray matter, leading to atrophy of muscles, or involved the white matter of the cord in a similar way to that seen in locomotor ataxia or multiple sclerosis, and (4) cerebral hæmorrhage chiefly due to circulatory change. This classification is accepted by many of to-day. To be scientifically correct, however, the fourth group, *i.e.*, the cerebral palsies, should not be classed as a palsy due to a diphtheritic toxin, inasmuch as they are accidental. Strictly speaking the term diphtheritic palsy should be applied to those palsies only which are due to direct action of the diphtheritic toxin."

A child, 4 years old, was seen during my service at the Willard Parker Hospital. He had suffered with severe tonsillar and pharyngeal diphtheria. The exudate was unusually thick. The resident physician called my attention to a regurgitation of the liquids through the nose and to the nasal twang in speaking. On examining the throat, all evidences of diphtheria had disappeared. The tip of the uvula, instead of hanging in the median line, pointed toward the left side. As this case was a severe type of diphtheria we were not surprised to see the paralysis. Strychnine was given. The case recovered.

When diphtheria has preceded an attack of paralysis, the diagnosis is easily made. Emaciation is general as a rule and not confined to a simple group of muscles.

The disease is sometimes mistaken for acute anterior poliomyelitis. The onset of the latter is sudden and is usually preceded by fever. The absence of a history of diphtheria aids in establishing the diagnosis.

In 275 cases reported by Myers, 80 died, or 29 per cent.

Course.—A mild case of diphtheria will show exfoliation of the exudate on the tonsils and pharynx about twenty-four to forty-eight hours after a sufficient dose of antitoxin has been injected. In four or five days after the beginning of illness, the disease usually disappears, so that there is no visible evidence of the same.

In a severe case[1] (male, 8 years old) seen by me in October, 1904, in the wards of the Willard Parker Hospital, the exudate completely covered the fauces. The tonsils, uvula, and pharynx were covered with one large mass of pseudo-membranes. The cervical glands were very much enlarged. The case looked decidedly septic. An injection of 5000 units of antitoxin was given on the first day, soon after admission to the hospital. A second injection of 5000 units was given on the second day. A third injection of 5000 units was given on the third day. A fourth injection of 5000 units was given on the fourth day, so that 20,000 units were administered during the first four days after admission to the hospital. The membrane exfoliated, the swelling of the glands disappeared and one week after his admission, the throat was clear and he was convalescent.[1]

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[1] The colored illustration D, Plate XXIII, was drawn from this case at the bedside in the Willard Parker Hospital.

A mild case of diphtheria may last from five to eight days. Severe types may last many weeks. No case of diphtheria should be considered to have run its course until the heart's action is normal and the general condition good. Sudden death may come from over-exciting a weakened or damaged heart if proper caution is not used.

Prognosis.—The uncertainty of this disease and the ease with which complications follow must be taken into consideration in giving the prognosis in a given case of diphtheria. A child suffering from diphtheria, who was brought up in unsanitary surroundings or one deprived of breast-milk, will suffer much more than one favored with the opposite conditions. Such factors are important in giving an opinion. A child with rickets is more liable to succumb to an infection from diphtheria and may possibly die, when a child with a strong normal body and healthy internal organs will recover. In this disease we therefore note that it is the "survival of the fittest." When diphtheria follows typhoid, or when it is a complication of a severe systemic infection, like scarlet fever, then great care should be exercised in venturing an opinion as to the probable outcome of the attack.

The guide in estimating the prognosis of any case of diphtheria should always be the condition of the heart. A very rapid pulse or a gradually increasing pulse-rate are bad signs. The temperature cannot be looked upon as the most impotant factor in determining the outcome of this condition. I have seen cases of diphtheria in hospital as well as in private practice where *normal temperatures prevailed* and still septic conditions were positive. Such cases, showing a low inflammatory type having slight elevations of temperature, *rarely recover.* The prognosis is also influenced by the time at which the treatment was commenced. When antitoxin is injected on the first or second day of the disease the outcome is brighter naturally than when the disease extends without specific treatment. The mortality is greatest in children under 2 years of age.

Prophylaxis.—In no disease should we be more careful than in diphtheria. Strict isolation of all cases should be enforced, so that no transmission of the disease can take place.

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[1] This case was reported by me at a meeting of the New York State Medical Association held October 19, 1904.

In New York City children suffering from diphtheria are excluded from school for a minimum period of one week and must not be readmitted until all symptoms have disappeared and the culture is negative. If quarantine is observed, children and others who have been immunized against the disease, and cultures from whose throats do not show diphtheria bacilli, may return to school. If children or others in the family are immediately removed to another address and culture taken from nose and throat is negative, they may be readmitted. If continuing to reside at home and the above precautions are not taken, they cannot be readmitted until the case has been officially discharged.

Visitors may be permitted in a room where diphtheria exists, providing they do not come into direct contact with the patient.

The vital point to be considered is how to prevent complications. The question arises: Can complications be prevented by proper treatment? They certainly can if treatment is commenced early in the disease. We must carefully watch all the functions of the body and stimulate those that do not seem to act. The emunctories are the most important which require watching. If the kidneys are found secreting very small quantities of urine, then we can be reasonably sure that the toxins stored in the kidneys will cause serious damage. When therefore a scanty secretion of urine is met with it will at once call for active diuretic treatment. The rule I have always followed is to *stimulate with mild diuretic treatment* from the beginning, and secure a copious secretion of urine. The same is true regarding the condition of the bowels. In no disease is it as important to have food assimilated and to have proper evacuation as in the course of the treatment of diphtheria.

We eliminate large quantities of toxins by the bowel, the skin, and the kidneys; hence we have it in our means to hasten recovery and at the same time guard against storing up poison in the blood.

The clothing should be warm. The child should not be exposed while bathing. We must guard against draughts, as we know there is a peculiar predilection for pneumonia in the course of diphtheria. The urine must frequently be examined. The examination must not only be chemical, but microscopical. The moment we find our case complicated by nephritis, the same should be given proper attention.

Isolation.—Very frequently children have Klebs-Loeffler bacilli in the throat—so-called culture cases—in the premembranous stage of the disease. Some of these develop diphtheria of the most virulent type. A safe rule, therefore, is to *insist on the isolation of every child having the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus in the secretions of the nose and throat*, for weeks and months if necessary, until a swab from the throat shows an absence of the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus, to guard against possible development of fatal diphtheria.

The finding of diphtheria bacilli in the throat without marked clinical indications of diphtheria has no significance, according to Behring.[1]

He asserts that about 10 per cent. of the entire population carry diphtheria bacilli in their throats without resulting infection. The bacilli have lost their virulence, or else the individual possesses a natural immunity. He considers all bacteria with the morphological characteristics of Loeffler's bacillus true diptheria bacilli, but he would differentiate a simple angina, rhinitis, or conjunctivitis from diphtheria, even with diphtheria bacilli numerous in the organ involved, if there were no general symptoms of diphtheria. He affirms that it is useless and nonsensical to isolate persons who have been exposed to diphtheria. It is impossible to free people from the bacilli or to keep them permanently free. Infection results from a predisposition, which is in turn due to a lack of antitoxic serum in the blood. The antibodies which undoubtedly exist in the blood of numerous individuals are probably produced by the vital activity of avirulent diphtheria bacilli in their throats. He consequently suggests that it might be possible to induce auto-immunization by transplanting avirulent diphtheria bacilli into the throats of other human beings. The comparative immunity of physicians to diphtheria may be due to the repeated, unconscious inoculation with small doses of the virus. Extensive, systematic preventive inoculation with antitoxin would induce a natural immunity to the disease and entail the final disappearance of diphtheria.

While the view maintained by Behring is interesting, it certainly does not conform to modern clinical experience. No child should be permitted at large with diphtheria bacilli, owing to the possible fatal result entailed thereby.

Immunization in Diphtheria.—Immunity in the Nursling: There seems to be an immunity conferred upon the nursling. This may be due to the antitoxic properties of serum contained in the mother's milk.

Diphtheria rarely attacks nurslings, but most frequently attacks infants brought up by hand-feeding—the bottle babies. It is most frequently met with between the second and eighth years. The disease may recur and has been known to attack patients three or four and even more times.

How to Immunize.—When a case of diphtheria occurs in a family in which there are apparently very healthy children, then immunity can be conferred upon them by giving an injection of antitoxin. This immunity is in the nature of prophylactic treatment. The average dose required for a child from 1 to 5 years is 300 to 400 units. For older children, from 5 to 12 years, between 400 and 500 antitoxin units may be injected. No further treatment will be necessary after the injection. All aseptic precautions which are described in the article on the "Injection of Antitoxin" must be used whether we inject a large or a small dose of antitoxin. It must not be supposed that because an immunizing dose of antitoxin has been injected such a child may then be exposed to this disease with impunity. Experience has shown that when children have been given an immunizing dose of antitoxin and are immediately isolated, as a rule they do not take the disease. On the other hand, *if children are permitted to remain in the same room with a case of malignant diphtheria, it is quite plausible to assume that they will take the disease, even though an immunizing dose of serum has been injected.* Immunity is usually conferred for a period of two or three weeks. It is a good plan to repeat this same immunizing dose of antitoxin if diphtheria still prevails in the household three weeks after the first injection has been given. Children receiving an immunizing dose should be treated as though they were perfectly well children. There should be no restriction to their diet and they should be permitted to romp and play in the open air, and receive their bath just as though no injection had been given.

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[1] Therapie der Gegenwart (Berlin).

The New York Board of Health reported a series of immunizing injections in 6806 individuals, given by their inspectors from January 1, 1895, to January 1, 1900. Out of the above number, 18 contracted diphtheria of a mild type; 1 contracted diphtheria complicated with scarlet fever; total, 19 cases, the last case of scarlet fever ending fatally. The New York Board of Health, Division of Bacteriology, from January, 1898, to January, 1900, reports 682 cases of diphtheria which were secondary to an original case in the same family. Under secondary are included only those cases which occurred at least twenty-four hours after and within thirty days of the primary case. Of these 682 cases, 61 died, a mortality of 8.9 per cent. Had these 682 cases received antitoxin (immunizing dose) when the physician first visited the families, probably not one of them would have contracted the disease. When immunity is conferred by an injection of antitoxin it lasts about twenty days, *provided it is given twenty-four hours previous to actual exposure.*

As a rule no harm will result by the injection provided the serum used is of a standard quality. We must not expect to prevent follicular tonsillitis or any other disease by an immunizing injection of antitoxin.

Morrill reports that of 1808 children immunized at least every twenty-eight days with 150 to 500 units of serum, 7 had diphtheria: 3 from insufficient dosing, 2 within twenty-four hours of the injection, and 2 in twenty-two and twenty-three days. Of 829 who had not been given antitoxin, or in whom more than twenty-eight days elapsed after the injection, 9 had diphtheria, besides 3 immunized adults.

Biggs and Guerard, from 35 reports of 17,516 cases in which small doses of antitoxin were given as an immunizing agent, state that diphtheria occurred in 131 cases: 109 mild cases and 1 fatal case within thirty days of the date of injection; 20 mild cases and 1 fatal case after thirty days.

At the New York Infant Asylum 107 cases of diphtheria occurred between September and January, 1895 (30 cases a month). In October bacteriologic examination showed diphtheria bacilli in almost one-half of the throats.

January 16th 224 children were given immunizing doses of antitoxin, and up to February 15th only 1 case of diphtheria occurred. A second case then developed and between February 15th and 27th, 5 cases. On the 25th 245 children received antitoxin, and no cases occurred for thirty-one days. To sum up: before isolation and immunization 107 cases occurred in one hundred and eight days; after the latter was practiced, 5 cases in one hundred and twelve days.

The occurrence of diphtheria during an epidemic of measles at the New York Foundling Hospital added greatly to the mortality of the disease. During an epidemic of measles at that institution every child was given 400 units of antitoxin. The result was most encouraging, as is shown by the immunity conferred by the injection.

In 149 cases of measles, 500 units of diphtheria antitoxin were given at the first appearance of measles symptoms. No cases of diphtheria secondary to measles occurred in any of those cases for a period of one month at least. Since the appearance of the latter report another epidemic of measles has occurred at this institution. The children were given 500 units of antitoxin each, but it was apparent in a number of instances that immunity from diphtheria did not last for more than eighteen days to three weeks, at which time several cases of diphtheria occurred, complicating or following measles, and generally proved fatal. This relatively *shorter period of immunity from diphtheria in measles* cases has been noted in France and Germany, and for this reason Slawyk recommends that the immunizing dose be repeated every two weeks in measles epidemics.

W. P. Coues gives an account of an epidemic of diphtheria at St. Mary's Infant Asylum, in Boston, 1898. Fifty children were given doses of antitoxin, from 50 to 500 units, the small dose in a one-day infant. Urticaria occurred in 14 as the only bad result. From February 15th to March 22d there were 18 cases of diphtheria. After the latter date, when antitoxin was begun, there occurred no cases for three weeks.

Krauss gives an extensive analysis of results of immunizing doses in 122 hospital cases, which were divided as follows: 14 were scarlet fever cases, 2 of which later contracted diphtheria; 31 cases of children were sent to the diphtheria pavilion and found not to have true diphtheria; no cases contracted it; 17 measles cases, many of them complicated; 1 developed diphtheria.

Thus, of 122 cases, all of whom were more or less exposed to the dis-e, and all ill with diseases most likely to be complicated by diphtheria, y 3 became infected, on the twenty-sixth, twenty-seventh, and forty-first day after inoculation. The dose of antitoxin ranged from 200 to 400 units, the latter being given to the children with suspected diphtheria.

In addition to the results of immunization at the New York Infant Asylum, the following report of Biggs will show the result at other institutions:—

TABLE NO. 52.

Place of Observation.	Children Immunized.	Cases of Diphtheria Developing among those Immunized between 1 and 30 days.	Cases Developing within 24 Hours.	Cases Developing after 30 Days.	Number of Cases of Diphtheria that Occurred in the Institutions Previous to Immunization.
Nursery and Child's Hospital	136	0	0	0	46 cases in 90 days; 15 cases in 18 days
New York Juvenile Asylum	81	0	0	0	12 cases; 3 cases in 2 days
New York Catholic Protectory	114	0	1	0	5 cases in 3 days
Bellevue Hospital	11	1 mild on the 19th day	3	one 30th one 31st one 55th	2 cases in 10 days. One or more cases in more than 90 families
Total. . . .	342				

TABLE NO. 53.—*Diphtheria Cases Treated at Willard Parker Hospital.*

	1910	1911
Number of cases treated	1857	1558
Total number of deaths	389	268
Percentage mortality	20.9	17.2
Total number dying within forty-eight hours	99	88
Total number of cases intubated	348	292

MODERN TREATMENT OF DIPHTHERIA.

The treatment of diphtheria requires careful consideration in each and every case. Certain conditions must be met; therefore it is wise to look ahead.

Hygienic Treatment.—Put the child to bed in a large, airy room. The room must be free from draught and so arranged that proper ventilation can easily be carried out. Fresh air in the treatment of this disease is of prime importance. Pseudo-membranous deposits in the nose, pharynx, larynx, or tonsils will frequently cause a mechanical impediment to the entrance of oxygen. Carbonic acid poisoning can easily take place, and the entrance of fresh air into the lungs is of the greatest importance. In simple diphtheria, or if we have an extension of the croupous deposits into the bronchi, perfect oxygenation of the lungs is demanded. Having given attention to proper ventilation, we must seek to maintain an equal temperature in the room. The temperature of the sick-room should be between 65° and 72° F. The entrance of sunlight is of prime importance. When we consider the great antiseptic properties of sunshine and its beneficial effect upon the patient, then we must see the importance of admitting as much light and sunshine as possible.

The Bath.—Next in importance to fresh air and sunlight is the bath. Every patient with diphtheria should be sponged twice daily with a tepid sponge bath. The body should be briskly rubbed for a few minutes after the bath to stimulate the cutaneous circulation. By opening the pores of the skin we naturally favor elimination; hence it is advisable to encourage diaphoresis by attending to the skin.

SPECIFIC OR ANTITOXIN TREATMENT.

Manner of Administering the Antitoxin. The greatest amount of care should be exercised in administering antitoxin. The skin of the patient at site of puncture should be painted with tincture of iodine. The physician's hands and the needle used should be rendered aseptic. Disinfect the syringe with alcohol. Abscesses need not form at the base of puncture if care and attention are bestowed to strict cleanliness.

Part of the Body Chosen.—Wherever a loose fold of skin can be pinched up, for example on the thigh, the loose tissues of the abdomen, the outer portion of the chest, or between the shoulder blades, the needle should be inserted into the cellular tissue and the antitoxin gradually injected. The puncture should then be sealed with a drop of collodion. Fill the syringe with antitoxin and *expel all air* before injecting the patient. Sudden death after the injection of antitoxin has been reported when this precaution was neglected and air was injected into a vein.

According to Ehrlich, the diphtheria toxin consists of three substances: toxoid, toxin, and toxone. The toxoid is harmless; the toxin is the cause of the acute symptoms, and the toxone is the cause of the late paralysis. The three substances are neutralized by antitoxin in the order named, so that an insufficient dose of antitoxin may neutralize the toxoid and toxin only, thus leaving the toxins still active and able to cause paralysis.

Dose Required. *Mild Cases:* The dose depends on the severity of the infection. The usual amount required for a child from 1 to 5 years old with a mild form of diphtheria is 1500 to 3000 units. If there is no effect noticeable within twelve to twenty-four hours, then a second injection of the same quantity should be given. A child 5 to 10 years of age should be given at least 3000 to 5000 units at its first injection, to be followed in twelve to twenty-four hours by another injection of the same amount if there is no amelioration of the symptoms.

TABLE NO. 54.—*Number of Doses Antitoxin Administered, Amount Given and Interval Elapsing Between Doses.*

Number of cases receiving one dose	1171
Number of cases receiving two doses	104
Number of cases receiving three doses	18
Number of cases receiving four doses	2
Number of cases receiving five doses	1

Number of cases receiving 5000 units	225
Number of cases receiving 10,000 units	1182
Number of cases receiving 15,000 units	72
Number of cases receiving 20,000 units	58
Number of cases receiving 25,000 units	6
Number of cases receiving 30,000 units	3
Number of cases receiving 45,000 units	1

Cases showing interval of one-half day	14
Cases showing interval of one day	85
Cases showing interval of two days	25
Cases showing interval of three days	7
Cases showing interval of four days	8
Cases showing interval of five days	3
Cases showing interval of six days	2
Cases showing interval of seven days	3
Cases showing interval of eight days	2
Cases showing interval of twelve days	1

Severe Cases.—When we are dealing with a severe toxæmia with marked general depression and large masses of pseudo-membranes in the throat, then at least 10,000 units of antitoxin[1] should be injected in the beginning. When the cervical lymph glands are enlarged and there is slight or severe evidence of stenosis, then at least 10,000 units should be injected in the beginning.

Indications for a Second and Third Injection of Antitoxin.—If twelve hours after the first injection there is no visible effect on the pseudo-membranes, if the child is not brighter, if the appetite is poor, and if the heart's action is very poor—in other words, if there is *no visible improvement*—then by all means inject a second dose of antitoxin.

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[1] It is frequently necessary to repeat the dose, so that 10,000 units may be given during the first day of illness, if no improvement is noted. The dose of 10,000 units may be repeated during the first three days if no improvement is noted. I am in favor of large doses and watch the child's condition as the guide when sufficient antitoxin has been injected.

The necessity for the third injection depends upon the pulse, temperature, the condition of the glands of the neck, and upon the macroscopic condition of the throat. If no improvement exists, then the third injection is imperative.

Effect of Antitoxin on the Blood.—It has been found experimentally by Dr. Park that if an injection of 10,000 units was given to children a second injection rarely was necessary. The antitoxin was found to reach

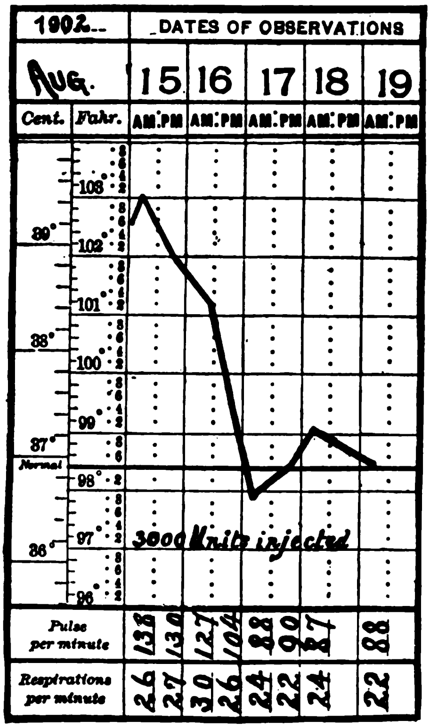

Fig. 169.—Temperature Chart from a Case of Diphtheria, showing the Specific Effect of Antitoxin on the Temperature. Note also the effect on the pulse. (Original.)

the blood-stream slowly, increasing up to the third, fourth, or fifth day, and then slowly decreasing. That if the second dose were given twelve hours after the first the beneficial effects which might be attributed to it were really due to the continued absorption of the first dose, the second only contributing its share. It was also found that when antitoxin was given intravenously a large amount of it went into the blood-stream immediately; therefore, this means should be used in desperate cases.

Intravenous Injections.—The most rapid method of bringing the antitoxin into direct contact with the toxin is by intravenous injection. The dose injected should be at least 10,000 to 20,000 units. The site of the injection preferred is the median basilic vein at the bend of the elbow. In very young infants the jugular vein is more preferable. With a supporting pillow at the nape of the neck the jugular vein stands out prominently and the technique of the injection is simplified. In many instances it will be necessary to expose the vein in order to successfully inject the antitoxin. With the aid of a 6 per cent. aqueous cocaine solution local anæsthesia can be sufficiently attained. If we are careful to exclude all air while injecting the antitoxin, no untoward symptoms will follow. If the site of the median basilic vein is chosen, compression above the bend of the elbow will make the vein stand out prominently. Sterilize the surface, and inject several drops of cocaine. Make a small incision across the course of the vein.

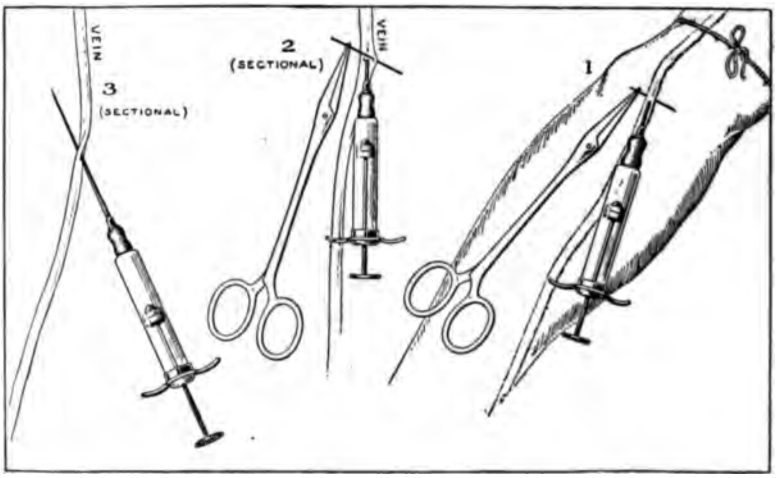

Fig. 170.—No. 1 shows the method of transfixing and raising the vein with a sewing-needle and holding it in the elevated position by means of a hæmostat. The syringe needle is shown inserted into the vein beneath the transfixing needle. No. 2 shows more in detail the method of fixation and the insertion of the needle. No. 3 shows what frequently happens in attempting to insert the needle of the syringe without first fixing the vein. (After Watson.)

The arm is corded above the elbow, so as to cause the vein to become distended and prominent. The vein is then transfixed with a straight surgical needle. The cord may then be loosened and the needle of the syringe inserted into the vein at right angles to and beneath the surgical needle, which is raised by a hæmostatic forceps. Fig. 170 illustrates the advantages of this method.

Laryngeal Stenosis.—It is always a safe plan to give an injection of 5000 units; and if the stenosis does not disappear in twelve hours, I give an additional injection of 5000 units, so that, in all, 10,000 units may be injected during the first twenty-four hours (read article on "Intubation").

The above treatment with antitoxin will be serviceable when we are dealing with a pure Klebs-Loeffler infection, but there are a great many cases in which we have a mixed infection, and the streptococcus infection predominates.

There are contributing factors frequently leading to a fatal termination. First and foremost is the presence of the streptococcus in addition to the Klebs-Loeffler infection. In these mixed infections we have, in addition to the general diphtheria, a distinct streptococcemia. In these cases antitoxin is inert as regards the streptococcus. We frequently have broncho-pneumonia, nephritis, arthritis, otitis, and local abscesses due to the invasion of the streptococcus. To neutralize such mixed infection we require besides the Klebs-Loeffler antitoxin a streptococcus antitoxin or a potent antistreptococcus serum.

The bacteriological findings will therefore be the guide in the future in determining, first, whether a culture from the throat shows a mixed or an unmixed infection and in addition to this bacteriological examination, the blood must be examined to determine the presence or absence of a streptococcemia. The treatment must be based on scientific data; hence it should conform with the result of what is found by culture from the throat and by the thorough examination of the blood.

If we can inject a sufficient quantity of antitoxin to stimulate cell activity and neutralize general toxæmia,[1] then we give our patient the greatest opportunity to eliminate this deadly poison and to begin convalescence.

The ordinary shortcomings that are most frequently met with consist of placing too much reliance on the specific nature of antitoxin regardless of other vital necessities. In this infectious disease, where there is marked leucocytosis and other evidences of subnormal hæmic conditions, the indication next to antitoxin is for restorative treatment, especially nutrition.

Dietetic Treatment.—As a tissue and blood builder *no medication equals food.* It is, therefore, imperative to support the general nutrition by proper feeding. Milk diluted with some cereal decoction, like oatmeal, barley or rice, will be better borne than pure milk alone. Buttermilk or zoolak may be given. Sometimes it is necessary to partially peptonize milk to render it more absorbable. If the child is old enough the yolk of a raw egg can be added to the milk (egg-nog). Concentrated beef broth, chicken broth, clam broth or oyster broth should be thought of. When feeding once in three hours, it is a good plan to give some of this concentrated broth, followed in three hours by a milk feeding, and so alternate. In this manner we give our patient milk once in six hours. Acid fruits, such as oranges, lemons, grapes, and cranberries, are very well borne. When acid fruits are ordered they should be given an hour before milk feeding. Older children can be given raw scraped steak, calf's-foot jelly, and ice cream, which is nutritious and pleasant. When it is *difficult to feed by mouth* owing to excessive vomiting or to anorexia, or where intubation has been performed, it is a good plan to let the stomach have absolute rest and to depend on:—

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[1] In septic diphtheria where profound toxæmia exists an intravenous injection of 10,000 to 20,000 units of antitoxin should be used.

Rectal Feeding.—No more than two ounces should be injected at one time.

Milk, predigested	1 ounce
Starch water	1 ounce
Laudanum	1 minim

To be injected slowly through a colon tube after both colon and rectum have been cleansed by a soap-suds enema.

If the small nutritive enema is well retained we can repeat the injection once every four hours, and add the yolk of a raw egg to the above formula of milk, starch, and opium. Next in importance to giving the proper dose of antitoxin is the nutrition of the body, which has just been considered.

Elimination of Toxins.—The elimination of toxic elements can only take place by means of the bowels, kidneys, and skin. Normally in febrile conditions there is a general torpidity of the emunctories. Thus it is apparent that a dose of calomel, citrate of magnesia, or an alkaline solution, like the milk of magnesia or a laxative mineral water, will aid in the performance of these functions.

Medicinal Treatment.—It is advisable to remove the putrid membranes from the nose and throat and also the catarrhal discharges. To do this, mechanical treatment consisting of the cleansing of the nose with a salt solution of the strength of one dram of table salt to one pint of water is useful. A weak (½ per cent.) solution of permanganate of potash can also be used to cleanse the nose with the aid of a syringe (see Fig. 204).

Septic products in the nose and throat will frequently lead to a fatal termination. Their presence is a constant menace to the blood by inviting toxæmia. In addition thereto they give rise to fever and not infrequently septic material will find its way from the nose and pharynx into the Eustachian tubes, causing abscesses. If neglected it may lead to mastoid involvement and brain abscesses or to septic meningitis, with *little or no chance of recovery.*

By observing the enlarged lymph glands, it is surprising to see what good result is apparent after cleansing the nose and pharynx.

Local Treatment of the Pseudo-membranes.—The solvent effect of local remedies I have never been able to see. When papayotin has been used, I have been disappointed in its effect. Creosote vapor, by adding a dram of beechwood creosote to a pint of water and allowing the air to become impregnated with the vapor, has shown some good in a few instances. Lugol's solution of iodine (half-strength), applied by means of absorbent cotton, can be recommended. A steam atomizer containing a weak solution of 2 per cent. sulphurous acid is sometimes of value. The latter has been used by me and certainly can be recommended when there are extensive necrotic patches. It is far better than peroxide of hydrogen.

Enlarged Lymph Glands.—Other local treatment which I have used with benefit is the inunction of unguentum Credé into the cervical glands, rubbed in at least fifteen to twenty minutes two or three times a day. An ice-bag worn continually can also be recommended when there is an extensive œdema. Some cases do better by the application of a warm flaxseed poultice covered with oil-silk, or by the application of a hot-water bag.

Oxygen is indicated and required when there is the slightest evidence of cyanosis. It will also relieve dyspnœa when present. It is especially indicated during broncho-pneumonia, which so often complicates diphtheria.

Fever Treatment.—It is a wise plan to exclude antipyretic drugs during the treatment of fever in diphtheria. The best antipyretic measures consist in sponging with evaporating lotions such as alcohol and water or acetic ether, locally. Cold packs and flushing the bowel with cold water are very serviceable in some cases. When high fever due to pneumonia, to nephritis or to any other complication exists, the same should be treated as though the disease existed independent of the diphtheria.

When fever exists and the child cries continuously then *the ears* should be examined. Frequently an otitis media will keep up high fever until the drum is ruptured. Ten- to 20- drop doses of sweet spirit of niter are valuable if given several times a day. During the febrile stage of diphtheria, calomel in $^1/_{10}$- to $\frac{1}{2}$- grain doses, repeated several times a day, is a useful adjuvant in fever treatment.

Stimulation.—Owing to the depressing effect of the diphtheritic poisons, stimulation should begin early. Strychnine, $^1/_{100}$ grain, for a child 1 year old, repeated three or four times a day, may be given. The dose can be gradually and cautiously increased until a systemic effect is noticeable. Children will tolerate very large doses of strychnine just as they will tolerate very large doses of whisky. They can be combined. Tokay wine, champagne and coffee are valuable cardiac stimulants. Caffeine citrate and sparteine are also serviceable for enfeebled heart's action. The prognosis of a case of diphtheria is certainly better in a case where the heart has been supported until the toxæmia has passed away.

Paralysis.—The internal treatment of paralysis consists of strychnine and the usual restorative treatment. Galvanic and faradic electricity are good. Absolute rest in bed and gentle massage are indicated.

Statistics of the Kaiser and Kaiserin Friedrich Hospital in Berlin show a very interesting comparison between the mortality before and after antitoxin was used.

The death rate was 36.56, 35.57, and 45.78 in three successive years, or an average of 39.63 per cent. In the year 1894, when the serum treatment was first used, although experimentally, there were two interesting data: first, the mortality among cases treated with antitoxin was 16.6 per cent.; second, those treated without antitoxin, mortality 27.8 per cent. In the following year (1895) all cases of diphtheria were injected with antitoxin; the mortality fell to 11.2 per cent.

Immunity.—Four hundred and sixty children were injected with the object of producing immunity. Of these only 18 came down with diphtheria. All of these cases were mild and not one died.

A comparative study of the deaths before antitoxin was used and the present method of treatment, where all cases receive antitoxin, can hardly be made. I frequently see septic cases sent to the hospital in a moribund condition. The city hospital is used as a dumping ground for all malignant cases; hence the high mortality rate. The cases admitted belong to the laboring class of people. As these people are very poor, they delay sending for a physician until severe laryngeal stenosis sets in. When the disease has gained headway and there is a general septic condition, recovery, as a rule, is doubtful.

CHRONIC DIPHTHERIA.

There are two varieties which characterize this condition:—

The first form is simply the continuation of an acute attack of diphtheria, running a prolonged course. Second, a chronic form in which symptoms of pseudo-membranous rhinitis exist and which may be present months or years.

In the prolonged type previously mentioned, fever, glandular swelling and general systemic disturbances mark the beginning of the attack. In the latter type the febrile manifestations and general constitutional disturbances are totally absent.

Diagnosis.—The clinical picture of the chronic type of diphtheria narrows down to two distinct features: First, the presence of pseudo-membranes in the nose, pharynx, or larynx for months or years. Second, the persistence of the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus. Third, the marked absence of general constitutional disturbances.

Neisser, v. Behring, Walb, and more recently Newfield describe this form of diphtheria. He found that a series of cases of rhinitis atrophicans and ozæna showed Klebs-Loeffler bacillus in addition to the ozæna bacillus. I have met with cases of this prolonged type of diphtheria which clinically resembled syphilis.

Prognosis and Course.—Such cases require very careful observation and a very guarded opinion should be expressed as to the length of time that the condition will last. Not infrequently tuberculosis or some form of chronic broncho-pneumonia may follow with fatal result. In a case of chronic diphtheria extending over seven months which was complicated by entero-colitis during midsummer, the result was fatal.

Isolation.—The presence of the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus demands the strictest isolation from all healthy persons. The virulent nature of the Loeffler bacillus should be remembered. All children suffering with enlarged tonsils or those having adenoid vegetations should be carefully guarded against exposure to a case of this kind, as they are more prone to infection than those having healthy throats.

Treatment.—If we are dealing with a subnormal condition, the system must be built up with codliver-oil in addition to a concentrated diet, such as eggs, cereals, and broths. The most valuable drug, undoubtedly, is iron. The tincture of the chloride of iron, 10 to 30 drops, three times a day, or oftener, is very useful for its local as well as its systemic effect. I administer iron, regardless of its constipating tendency, for weeks and months.

Locally, a bichloride spray or a spray of Dobell's solution can be used three or four times a day. If after several weeks of persistent treatment no benefit results, then a decided change of air, such as a trip to the seashore or to the mountains, will assist in the cure of the patient.

INTUBATION.

When laryngeal stenosis occurs during a case of diphtheria, then we must prepare for intubation.

The following symptoms demand intubation:—

Labored breathing.

A gradual and progressive dyspnœa.

A failing or intermittent pulse.

Cyanosis showing defective oxygenation.

Retraction of chest wall most marked at epigastrium or at the clavicles.

When the accessory muscles of respiration are brought into play.

When the child is compelled to sit upright in order to breathe and pulls at its neck and throws itself from side to side, gasping for breath.

The management of a case of intubation in private practice should be carefully considered. No child should be permitted to wear a tube in the larynx without the constant supervision of a trained nurse. In the Willard Parker Hospital we have competent trained nurses both night and day, and a physician is always ready to respond in case of emergency. I have frequently intubated in private practice and always give the following orders to the trained nurse:—

First.—If the breathing becomes labored or if the child has a sudden increase in the number of respirations, notify the physician at once.

Second.—Watch the pulse; a sudden increase in the pulse-rate or a sudden, intermittent pulse means danger.

TABLE No. 55.—*Diphtheria Cases—Willard Parker Hospital.*

Year.	No. Treated.	Died.	Mortality Per cent.	Recoveries Per cent.	Intubations.	Recoveries Inclusive.	Recoveries Per cent.
1901	919	275	29.92	70.08	222	70	31.53
1902	1112	271	24.37	75.63	258	116	44.92
1903	1281	356	27.79	72.21	352	123	34.94
1904	1402	356	25.39	74·61	410	193	47.
*1905	478	98	20.50	79.50	154	86	56.
Total	5192	1356	26.12	73.88	1396	588	42.13

*On account of rebuilding the Hospital, no patients were received after June 17th.

Third.—If cyanosis or sudden apnœa occurs, possibly caused by a plugging of the lower portion of the tube with membrane, notify the physician so that the tube can be extubated and a tube of larger caliber inserted.

Fourth.—If the tube is suddenly expelled during a paroxysm of coughing (auto-extubation), a hurry call should be sent to the physician.

What to Do in an Emergency.—*First.*—Give a mustard foot-bath or apply a mustard plaster over the heart to stimulate the circulation.

Second.—Give 5 to 10 drops of aromatic spirits of ammonia with an equal quantity of whisky. Nitroglycerine can be given in $^1/_{100}$-grain doses every hour, hypodermically if necessary.

Third.—Relieve the stenosis, if it exists, by careful intubation.

Fourth.—If an expert intubator is not at hand, or if intubation pushes membrane downward so that the stenosis persists, *resort to tracheotomy.*

Regarding extubation, my rule in private practice is to extubate on the fifth day, or on the morning of the sixth day, provided the temperature is normal and no complication exists. *It is safer to leave a tube in the larynx one day longer than risk the necessity of reintubation.*

My two principal rules in intubation and extubation are: First, avoid force, thereby avoiding injury. This rule has been my greatest aid in preventing retained tubes. Second, do not hurry. While in a severe laryngeal stenosis a given amount of haste is necessary in selecting the proper-sized tube and making preparations, when it comes to the introduction of the tube, the inflammatory process and subnormal condition must be remembered; hence, go slow.

The nervous, frightened child must be quieted, especially when considering extubation. I usually order an antispasmodic for twelve hours preceding the removal of the tube. Codeine, $^1/_4$ grain or $^1/_3$ grain to a child

TABLE NO. 56.—*Showing Number of Intubated Cases and Percentage Mortality with Relation to Number of Hours Spent in Willard Parker Hospital.*

	1910
Total number intubated cases	348
Total number intubated cases discharged	203
Total number intubated cases died	145
Percentage mortality	41.67
Total number intubated cases dying within twelve hours	21
Percentage mortality	6.03
Total number intubated cases dying within twenty-four hours	33
Percentage mortality	9.48
Total number intubated cases dying within thirty-six hours	23
Percentage mortality	6.60
Total number intubated cases dying within forty-eight hours	22
Percentage mortality	6.32
Percentage mortality 348 intubated cases less forty-eight-hour cases	13.21

2 years old or older, is repeated every three hours for four doses, or 10-grain doses of sodium bromide, with 2 grains of chloral hydrate, repeated in six hours—two doses only—will allay nervous excitability and have a quieting effect. Antispasmodics should be continued for twenty-four hours after removal of the tube. The spasm due to fear of the operating table when repeated in- and ex- tubation is practised may in rare cases require the inhalation of a few drops of ethyl chloride prior to extubation. Dover's powder is a valuable drug as an antispasmodic.

Indications for Intubation.[1]—"The indications for intubation are marked by a more or less sinking in of the yielding portions of the chest, lower ribs and sternum, episternal notch, and supra-clavicular regions with inspiration. It means simply that air cannot gain entrance to the lungs in sufficient quantity to fill the partial vacuum created by the expansion of the chest, and the wall recedes under the weight of the atmosphere. It is very marked in very young or rachitic children owing to the greater elasticity of the ribs. But it should be remembered that this condition is not peculiar to stenosis of the larynx and trachea, as it is produced to a lesser degree by obstruction in any part of the respiratory tract that interferes with the free inflation of the lungs. It is found in capillary bronchitis, extensive deposits of pseudo-membrane in the bronchi, atelectasis, and to some extent even in broncho-pneumonia. Recessions at the root of the neck are more significant than those below, as the violent contractions of the diaphragm aid in drawing in the free border of the ribs and sternum.

"When recessions are marked there is little or no respiratory murmur over the posterior portion of the chest, but this symptom is not always available owing to the laryngeal stridor.

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[1] From O'Dwyer's treatise on "Intubation" in his book, "Diphtheria and Croup," 1889.

"Atelectasis with excessive quantity of blood in the lungs, as would naturally be expected, is the result of death from obstruction in the larynx, but there are exceptions to this rule, and these organs are occasionally found distended with air and containing less than the normal amount of blood. This acute general emphysema, which produces bulging of the parts that usually recede, is caused by greater impediment to expiration than inspiration, and air accumulates in the lungs in the same manner as in spasmodic asthma. It is not common in croup, but is worth remembering. It is also occasionally found in capillary bronchitis.

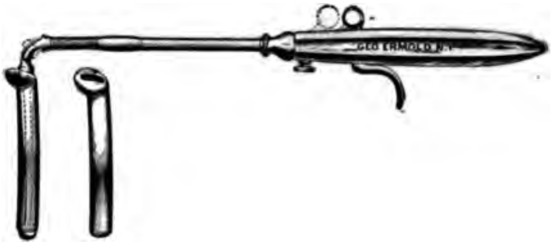

Fig. 171.—Introducer with Tube Attached.

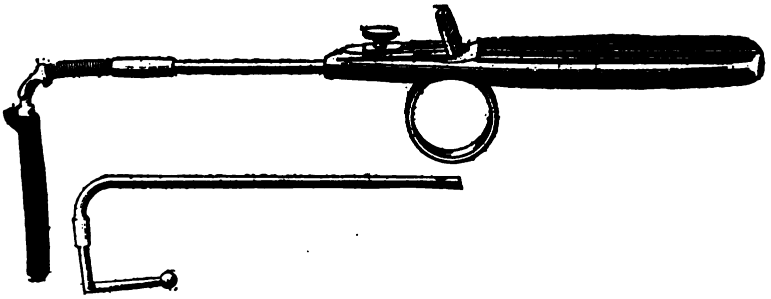

Fig. 172.—Introducer with Tube and Detached Obturator.

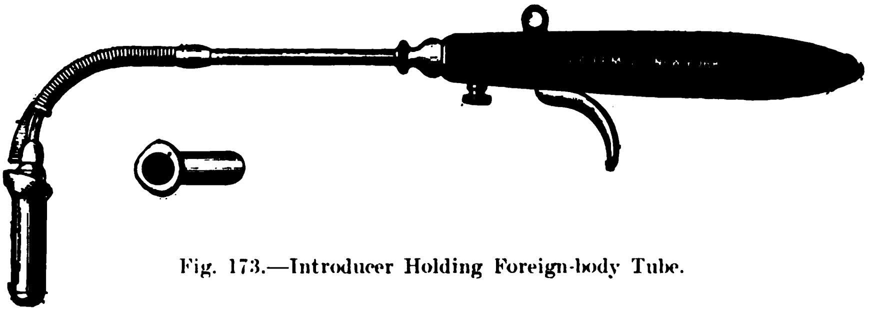

Fig. 173.—Introducer Holding Foreign-body Tube.

"The downward movement of the larynx with inspiration is pathogenic of serious obstruction in this organ, and is also the result of atmospheric pressure, the air being prevented from entering with sufficient rapidity to fill the partial vacuum below. It is readily detected in adults, but not so in children, owing to deeper situation of the larynx in the latter.

"This symptom is not present in stenosis of the trachea, owing to the great elasticity of this tube, which permits of considerable motion on itself without displacing the larynx.

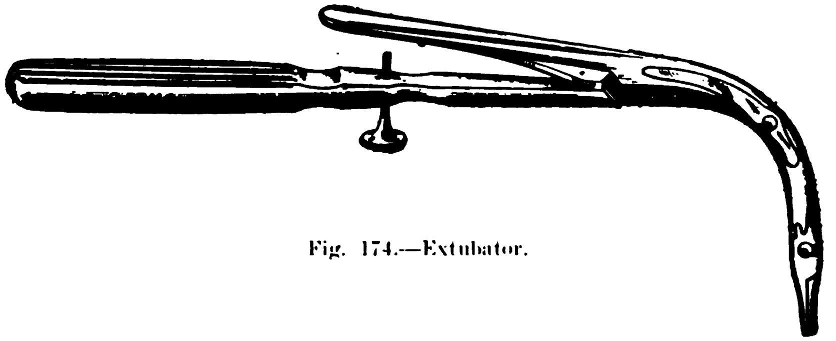

Fig. 174.—Extubator.

"Abiding cyanosis is too late a symptom to wait for, and, besides, it is uncertain, as fatal obstruction may exist in the glottis with extreme pallor on the surface. This pallor of asphyxia is produced by the excessive quantity of blood drawn into and stored in the lungs by the cupping-glass action of inspiration when the air is almost excluded. The blood in the cutaneous capillaries is thus reduced to a minimum, and this, although highly charged with carbonic acid, only serves to increase the paleness, on the principle that the addition of a little blue makes a clearer white.

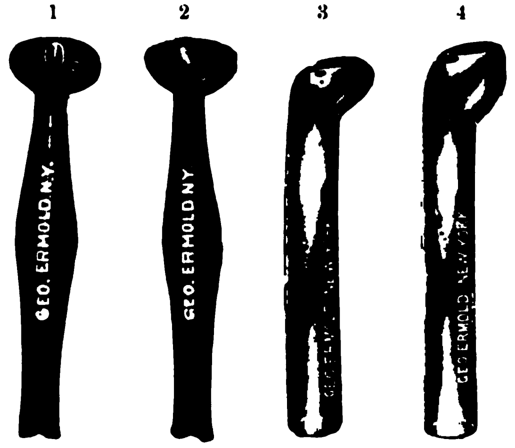

Fig. 175. Built-up Tubes for Granulation Tissue. Useful for treatment of "retained tubes."

"The temporary cyanosis which comes and goes with the paroxysmal dyspnœa of the second stage of croup is of no particular significance. *Children seldom remain long in one position when suffering severely from want of breath, and continued restlessness, if consciousness be unimpaired, is therefore an important indication that it is time to afford relief.*

"As far as the necessity for intubation is concerned, it matters little as to the real nature of the obstruction, provided it be in the larynx and not a foreign body. It may be croup, simple laryngitis, œdema of the glottis, paralysis, spasm, or even a neoplasm. In the latter it will tide over the immediate danger of asphyxia, and leave more breathing room to facilitate the radical operation."

Dorsal Method of Intubation.—This method is the most convenient, as it does away with the necessity of several assistants. I have frequently intubated in the dorsal position without any assistant. This method appeals to me as very valuable in emergencies, especially so when a physician is called out of town where no trained assistant is available. The method of introducing the tube is the same as that described as the O'Dwyer method. The dorsal method has been advocated by the attending and resident staff at the Willard Parker Hospital and is the method employed there now.

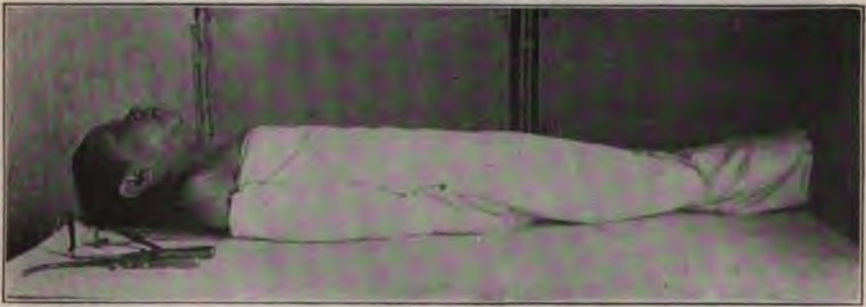

Fig. 176.[1]—The Mummy Bandage, showing child in proper position for the dorsal method of Intubation. All instruments required are carefully arranged. (Original.)

The gag should be inserted into the left side of the mouth, and slowly opened. The trained nurse steadies the child's head and holds the gag in place. With the child flat on its back, the hands firmly held by a blanket encircling the body, the physician stands on the right side of the child and introduces the index finger of his left hand in the median line until the epiglottis is felt. The epiglottis should be raised and fixed. The tube should then be guided with the right hand of the operator, along the left index finger, and inserted into the cul-de-sac of the larynx. It would be profitable to read O'Dwyer's description of the method of intubation which I append here, the only difference being that O'Dwyer recommends the sitting position, whereas I advocate the dorsal position.

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[1] The set of photographs illustrating intubation, extubation, and gavage were taken in the wards of the Willard Parker Hospital.

Upright Method of Operating.—"The nurse or person who holds the child should be seated on a solid chair with a low back, and the patient placed on the lap with head resting on left shoulder of nurse in order to leave the gag free. The hands can either be held or, still better, secured by the sides, by a towel or sheet passed around the body and left in that position until the tube is inserted and the string removed. Fastening the hands in front of the chest or thick garments in the same location renders it more difficult to depress the handle of the introducer sufficiently to carry the tube over the dorsum of the tongue.

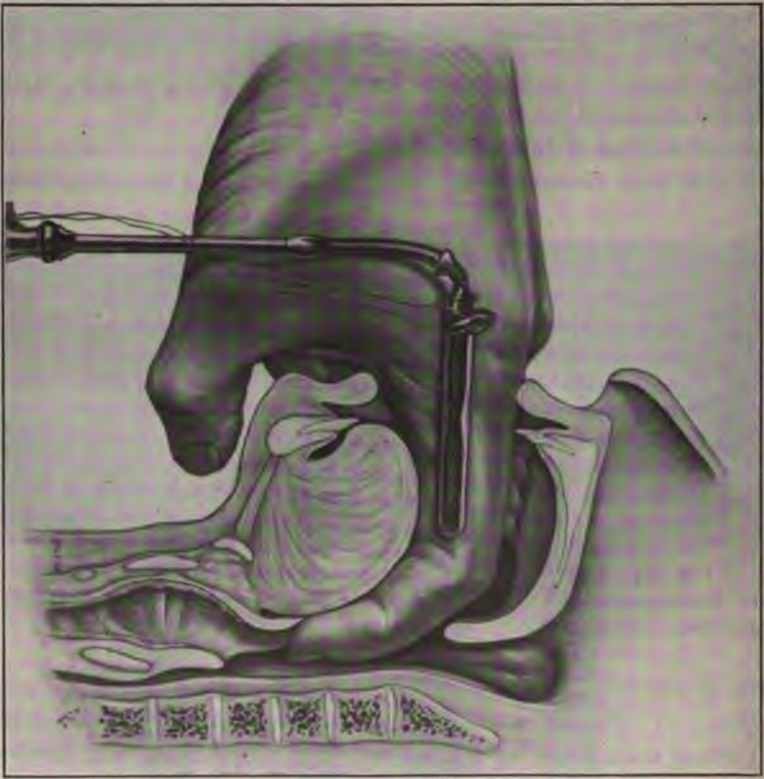
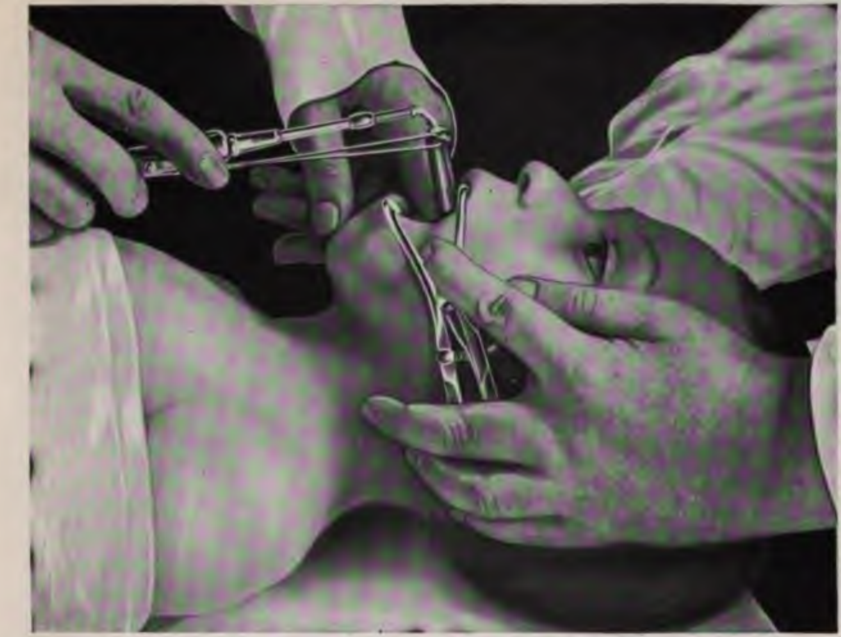


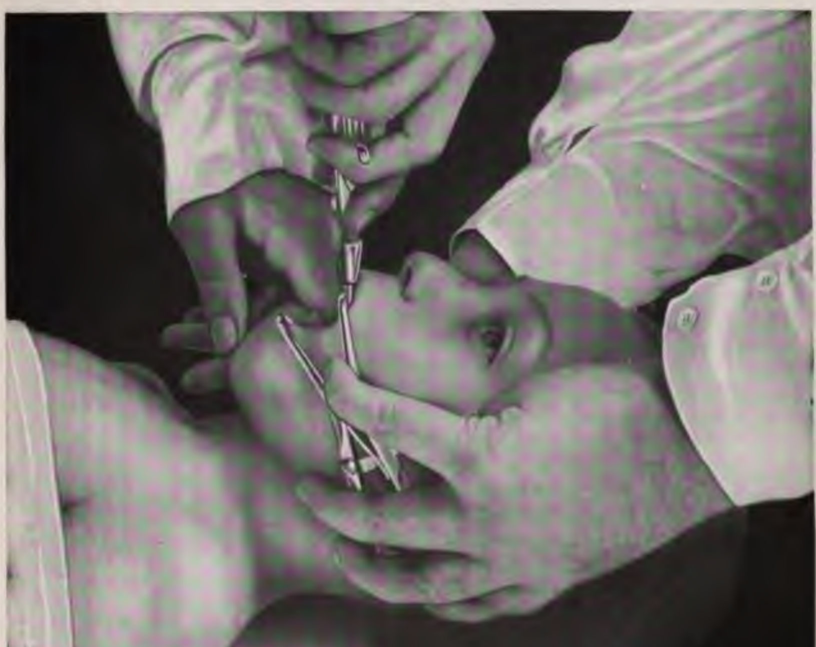
Fig. 177.—Intubation. Left index finger raising the epiglottis. The introducer with tube attached is glided along the finger. (Original.)

"The gag is then inserted well back behind or between the teeth in the left angle of the mouth and opened widely, care being taken not to do it

PLATE XXV



Intubation. First step. Index finger raising the tip of the epiglottis. The tube guided along the finger. (Original.)



Intubation. The tube passing the epiglottis. Entering the larynx. (Original.)

too suddenly or to use too much force. In children who have not at least one bicuspid on the left side, the gag should not be used, as it slips forward on the gums, and, besides being in the way, is liable to injure the incisor teeth. There is little difficulty in these cases in keeping the mouth sufficiently open with the finger, if carried far enough to the patient's right to be out of range of the front teeth. Allowing the child to compress the finger between the gums for a few seconds until the jaws relax, before carrying it into the fauces, avoids the necessity for using force.

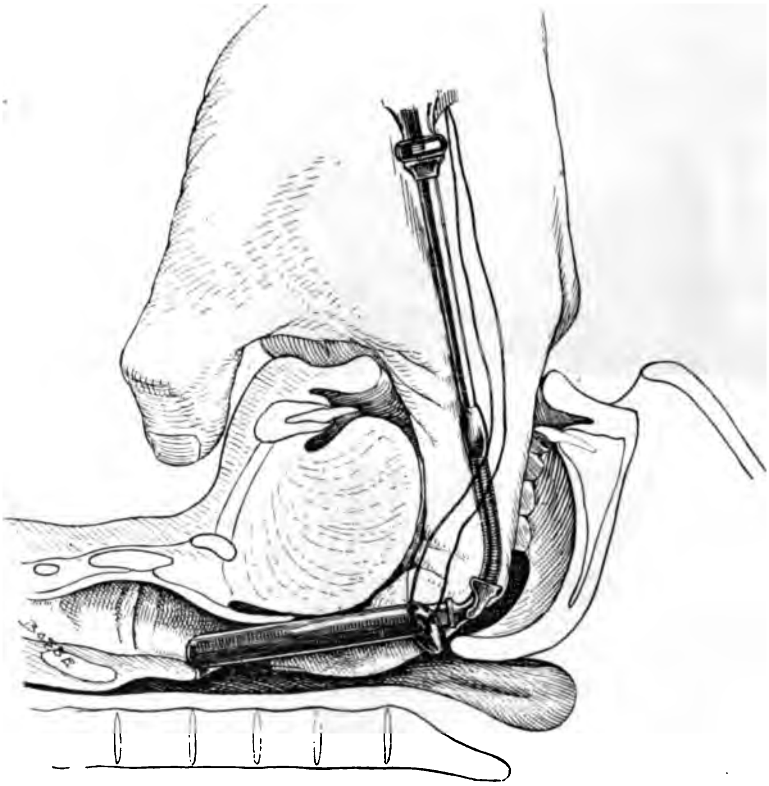


Fig. 178.—The tube, passing the epiglottis, entering the larynx. (Original.)

"An assistant stands behind the patient and holds the head firmly by placing one hand on either side, and at the same time slightly elevates the chin. The operator stands in front of the patient, holding the introducer lightly between the thumb and fingers of the right hand, the thumb resting on the upper surface of the handle, just behind the knob that serves to detach the tube, and the index finger in front of the trigger support underneath. Held in this manner it is impossible to use force enough to make a false passage, while if firmly grasped in the hand the beginner may, unconsciously, exert sufficient force to lacerate the tissues.

"The index finger of the left hand is carried well down in the pharynx or beginning of œsophagus and then brought forward in the median line, raising and fixing the epiglottis, while the tube is guided along beside it into the larynx. If any difficulty is experienced in locating the epiglottis, it is better to search for the cavity of the larynx, a cul-de-sac into which the tip of the finger readily enters, and which cannot be mistaken for anything else. Once in this cavity, the epiglottis must be in front of the finger and the latter is then raised and pressed toward the patient's right to leave room for the tube to pass beside it. The distal extremity of the tube should be kept in contact with the finger, and even directing it a little obliquely toward the right side of the larynx if necessary to get inside the left aryepiglottic fold, especially in very young children. The handle of the introducer is held close to the patient's chest in the beginning of the operation, and rapidly raised as soon as the end of the tube has passed behind the epiglottis; otherwise it will slip over the larynx into the œsophagus.

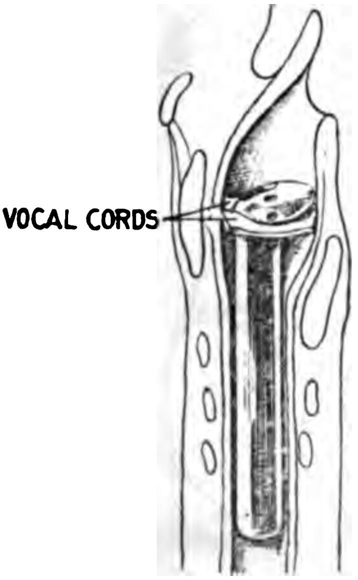
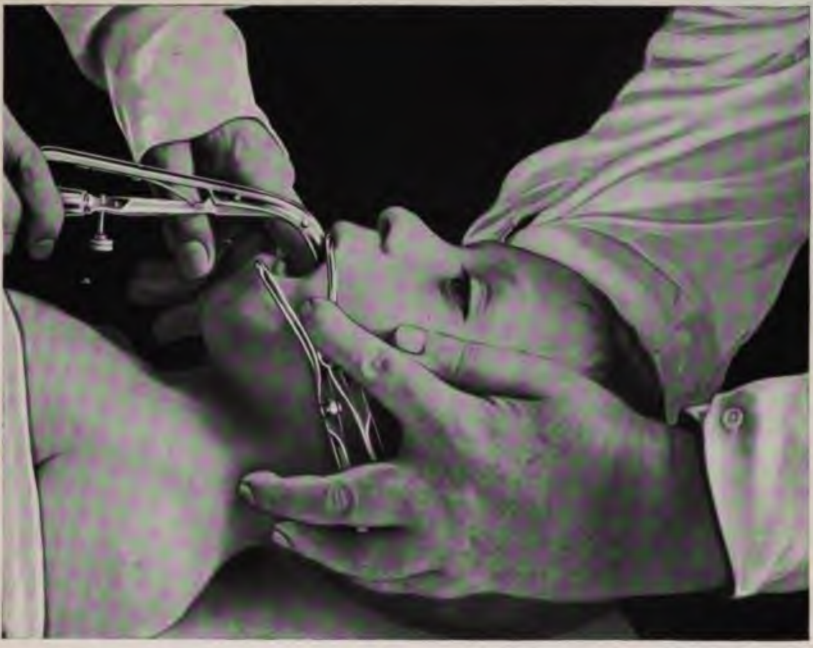


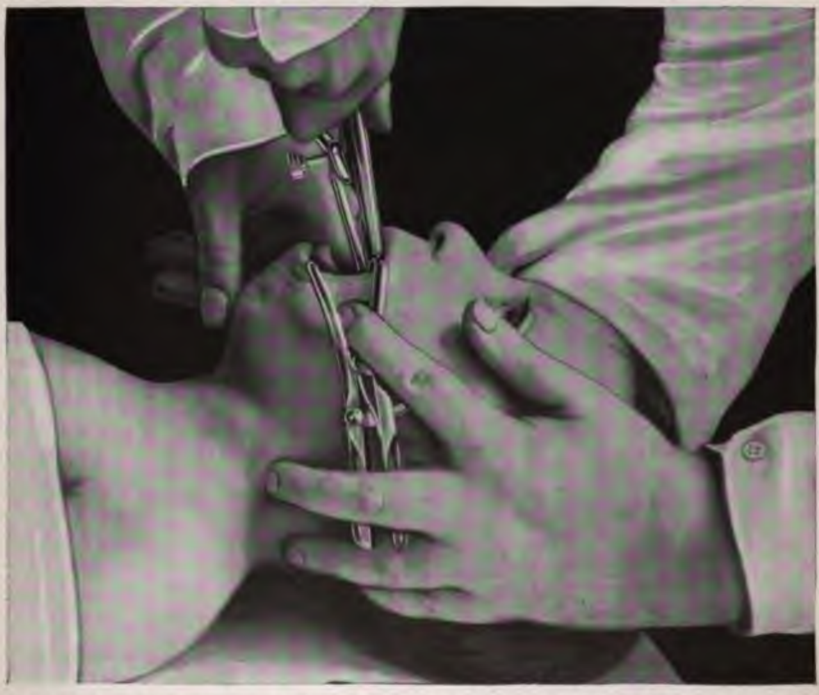
Fig. 179. Tube, resting on vocal cords, in the larynx. (Original.)

"Some operators hold the introducing instrument in the horizontal position until the tube is well back in the fauces, and then swing it around to the middle line and complete the operation in the usual manner. The beginner is liable to forget the latter movement, which is the only objection to this plan.

PLATE XXVI



Extubation. First step. Gag in position. Extractor is guided along the left index finger until the beak enters the lumen of the tube. (Original.)



Extubation. Second step. The beak of the extractor holding the tube firmly; the operator withdraws the tube. (Original.)

"As soon as the cannula is inserted the introducer with obturator attached is withdrawn by pressing forward the button on the upper surface of the handle with the thumb, while counter-pressure is made with the index finger on the trigger beneath. In removing the obturator—the joint in the shank of which is intended to facilitate this part of the operation—the movements required for insertion are reversed. To prevent the tube from being also withdrawn, the finger must be kept in contact with its shoulder either on the side or posteriorly.

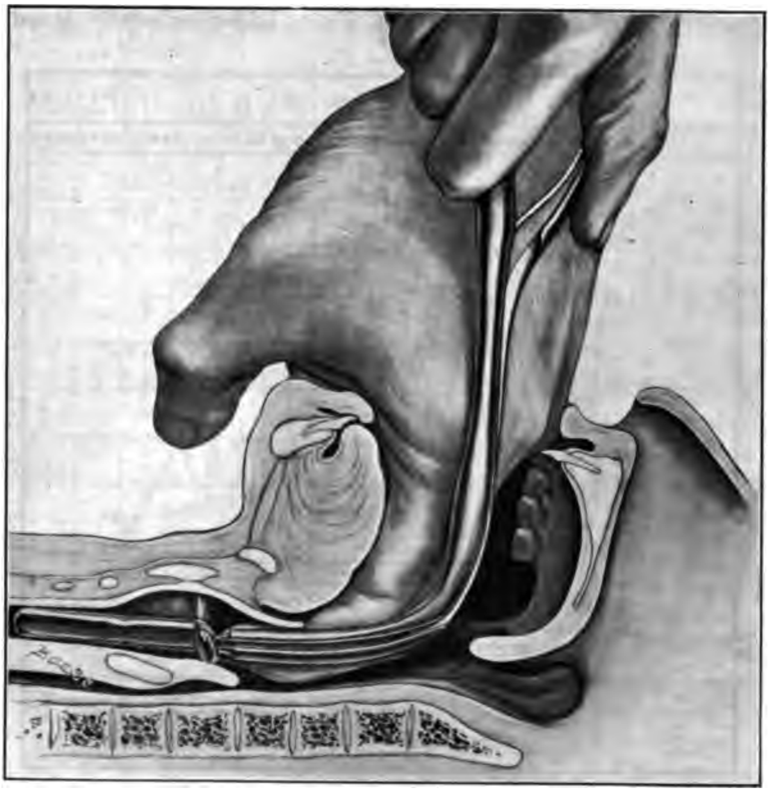


Fig. 180.—Extubation. The left index finger finding the tube. The beak of the extractor guided into the opening of the tube before removal of the tube. (Original.)

"The tube should be carried well down in the larynx before detaching it; otherwise the lower aperture will be left open and liable to strip off pseudo-membrane as it is subsequently pushed home with the finger.

"The gag is removed as soon as the tube is in place, but the string is allowed to remain in place long enough to be certain that the dyspnœa is relieved and that no loose membrane exists in the lower portion of the

A post-mortem specimen of larynx and trachea was recently examined by me at the Willard Parker Hospital. The child was in the hospital twenty-one days; it was therefore an acute laryngeal stenosis. Three ulcerations existed at the cricoid cartilage and nine other ulcerations existed at the distal end of the tube.

Feeding After Intubation.—Various methods of feeding are in vogue, and each clinical observer seems to be satisfied with his particular method. Whenever possible we should try to resort to the usual mouth feeding. I invariably feed semi-solid food, such as bread soaked in milk, custard, junket, cornstarch or rice pudding, soft-boiled eggs, if the child's age warrants it; also concentrated soups and broths, calfsfoot or chicken-jelly, water ices and ice cream. These articles of food I have found best adapted in a very extensive experience in hospital and consultation practice.

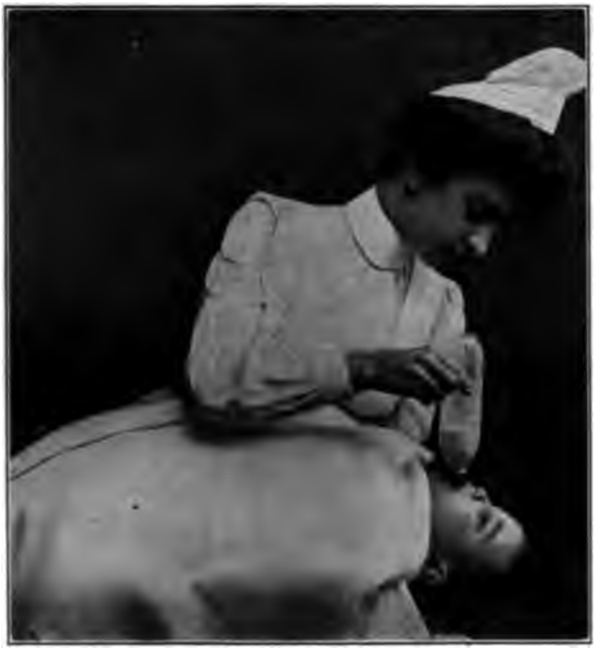


Fig. 183.—Casselberry Method of Feeding. (Original.)

In very young infants, breast or bottle fed, great care should be exercised with the feeding. If a breast-fed child refuses to nurse, the breast-milk can be pumped off and the infant fed every three or four hours by spoon.

My advice in intubated cases: Use natural methods of feeding—do not use gavage—choose simple ways. Rectal feeding may be tried if vomiting occurs.

There are several important points which must be emphasized in this operation. In the first place no force is necessary. "Occasionally a momentary spasm retards the immediate entry of the tube into the larynx, in which case, rather than use force, it is best to wait a second or two for this to relax, when the tube will fall into place. The introducer should be held lightly between the end of the thumb and finger, and not grasped firmly in the hand. The introducer should be kept exactly in the middle line; otherwise the obturator will pinch in the caliber of the tube and drag the latter with it as it is withdrawn. It often happens that the child manages by one effort to slip down in the nurse's lap, while the grasp that the assistant exerts tilts the head back, and the tube may impinge on the posterior wall of the larynx. The lines and angles must be maintained to insure quick intubation. The lack of observance and carelessness in these points explain many failures of inexperienced operators. *If the tube is not properly placed at the first attempt, it is better to begin all over, making repeated, short attempts, if necessary, rather than a single, prolonged one."*

Accidents During Intubation.—An inexperienced operator will frequently be rewarded by fatal asphyxia. Prolonged attempts to introduce the tube will result in apnœa.

"Ten seconds is the longest time that should be occupied in each attempt, if the child is suffering from urgent dyspnœa at the time." A child cannot breathe while the finger is in the throat. Repeated attempts will so exhaust the vitality of a child that this must be reckoned with.

"The expert seldom requires more than five seconds to complete the operation, except in difficult cases, such as a very small mouth and throat, marked increase in the size of the tonsils, especially if chronic; extreme tumefaction of the epiglottis and aryepiglottic fold, which changes or obliterates the usual landmarks, and the struggles and resistance sometimes offered by older children when intractable. In the latter, although I have never had to resort to it, the *administration of an anæsthetic would be less injurious* than the exhaustion and cyanosis induced by a prolonged struggle without it.

"If the tube has once passed on the outside of the larynx, and this is recognized before it is detached from the obturator, it is useless to try to rectify the position without first depressing the handle of the introducer as in the beginning of the operation, because, owing to the length of the tube, the palate arrests the upward movement before the distal extremity reaches the level of the glottic opening.

"In croup the ventricles of the larynx are usually obliterated by swelling of the tissues and covered over by the pseudo-membrane, and therefore seldom offer any obstacle to the passage of the tube on the first introduction; but when the stenosis persists longer than usual and reintroduction becomes necessary, it is well to remember that this may be a source of ob-

TABLE NO. 57.—*Series of Hospital Cases.*

No.	Name.	Sex.	Time of Patient in Hospital.	Kind of Feeding.	Age.	No. of Antitoxin Units Used.	When Intubated.	No. of Intubations.	Recent Examination at the age of	Condition of Throat.	Condition of Chest.	General Condition.
1	Celia M.	F.	30 days	All Breast-fed.	3 yrs.	6000 units N.Y. Dept. of Health	2d day of illness	1	10 yrs.	Enlarged Tonsils, Chronic Pharyngitis	Slightly pigeon-breasted	Rachitic, anæmic.
2	Ida S.	F.	44 "		4 "	2000 units N.Y. Dept. of Health	4th day of illness	1	7 "	Enlarged Tonsils, Pharyngitis	Rachitic, Harrison's groove, beaded ribs, funnel-shaped depression, pigeon-breast	
3	Nathan L.	M.	26 "		3 "	3000 units N.Y. Dept. of Health	2d day of illness	1	6 "	Rhinopharyngitis	Slight rachitis	General condition fair. Subject to dyspnœic attacks. Following year had measles and croup. Influenza and bronchitis lately.
4	Albert R.	M.	15 "		3 "	2000 units N.Y. Dept. of Health	2d day of illness	1	6 "	Enlarged Tonsils, Adenoids, Pharyngitis	Rachitis	Lymph nodes enlarged. Otitis, left ear. Rachitis. Measles and bronchitis after discharge.
5	Able A.	M.	37 "		2 "	2000 units N.Y. Dept. of Health	3d day of illness	1	5 "	Tonsillitis hypertrophica, Rhinopharyngitis	Harrison's groove, beaded ribs	General condition fairly good. Measles shortly after convalescence. Mild attack of croup two years later. Dyspnœa at times, due to catarrh.
6	Hugh L.	M.	17 "		5 "	2000 units N.Y. Dept. of Health	9th day of illness	1	8 "	Enlarged tonsils, Pharyngitis	Chest well developed	General condition good. Has an occasional cough.
7	Sammy S.	M.	18 "		6 "	2500 units N.Y. Dept. of Health	5th day of illness	1	12 "	Enlarged tonsils, Pharyngitis	Excellent, no rickets	General condition good. Well nourished boy. Mild throat symptoms. Is subject to colds.
8	Patrick R.	M.	19 "		4 "	2800 units N.Y. Dept. of Health	14th day of illness	4	10 "	Had tonsils removed after leaving hospital	Mild rachitis	Cervical lymph nodes removed after leaving hospital
9	Henry R.	M.	9 "		8 mos.	1500 units N.Y. Dept. of Health	4th day of illness	1	6⅔ "	Enlarged tonsils, Pharyngitis, Coryza	Rachitic funnel-shaped thorax	One year later had pneumonia.
10	Max L.	M.	29 "		1 year	1600 (dry) units 1000 (filtered) units N.Y. Dept. of Health	2d day of illness	3	7 "	Enlarged tonsils, Post-nasal catarrh, Adenoids	Rachitic, Harrison's groove, carious teeth	Since leaving hospital, pneumonia, laryngitis and strabismus. Returned after five years with mild diphtheria. (No intubation).

TABLE No. 58.—*Series of Private Practice Cases.*

No.	Name.	Age.	Sex.	Location of Membrane.	Case of	No. of Anti-toxin Units Used.	Time of In-tubation, Day of Dis.	Tube Retained.	No. of Intubations.	Condition of Throat.	Complica-tions.	Results.
1895												
1	W.	2 yrs.	M.	Pharynx, tonsils, larynx	Dr. A. W. Newfield	2500 units	2d day	4½ days	1	Tonsils enlarged	None	Cured
2	R.	2 "	F.	Pharynx and larynx	Dr. H. J. Boldt	3000 "	3d "	26 "	4	Pharyngitis, tonsillitis	Septic case, nephritis	
3	S.	5 "	F.	Larynx	Dr. L. Kohn	3000 "	5th "	14 "	3	Tonsils enlarged	None	Cured
4	R.	3 "	M.	Pharynx, tonsils, larynx	Dr. O'Connell and Dr. A. Bienenstock	2000 "	2d "	12 "	2	Chr. pharyngitis, hypertrophied tonsils	None	Cured
5	K.	4 "	M.	Pharynx and larynx	Dr. A. W. Newfield	2000 "	3d "	5 "	1	Hypertrophied tonsils	None	Cured
6	A.	5 "	M.	Pharynx tonsils, larynx	Dr. Emil Joel. Children's Dept. Ger. Pol.	2000 "	2d "	5 "	1	Hypertrophied tonsils	Bronchitis	Cured
1896												
7	D.	4 "	F.	Pharynx, uvula, larynx	Dr. S. Landsman	2500 "	3d "	6 "	1	Adenoids, hypertrophied tonsils	None	Cured
1897												
8	B.	3 "	M.	Pharynx and larynx	Dr. L. Bischof	2000 "	3d "	5 "	1	Hypertrophied tonsils	None	Excellent
9	R.	3 "	M.	Pharynx, tonsils, larynx	Dr. A. Bienenstock	4000 "	2d "	6 "	1	Adenoids, hypertrophied tonsils	None	Excellent
1898												
10	A.	3 "	M.	Pharynx and larynx	Dr. E. Lowenbein	2000 "	3d "	6 "	1	Hypertrophied tonsils	Measles	Coughed up tube. Asphyxiated
11	S.	4 "	F.	Pharynx, tonsils, larynx	Dr. M. Ghertler	3000 "	2d "	7 "	1	Hypertrophied tonsils, pharyngitis	None	Excellent
12	K.	2 "	M.	Tonsils, uvula, pharynx	Dr. Th. Manley	2500 "	3d "	5 "	1	Adenoids, hypertrophied tonsils	None	Excellent
13	G.	3 "	F.	Pharynx, tonsils, larynx	Dr. Geo. Saxe	1500 "	2d "	5 "	1	Hypertrophied tonsils	None	Cured
1899												
14	L.	2 "	M.	Larynx	Dr. H. Sheffield	1500 "	1st "	22 "	5	Hyper. tonsils, chronic rhinopharyngitis	Br.-pneu.	Cured
15	L.	3 "	M.	Pharynx and larynx	Dr. D. Jacobson	2000 "	3d "	14 "	3	Enlarged tonsils	None	Cured
1900												
16	O'M	5 "	M.	Pharynx and larynx	Dr. C. Campbell	2000 "	2d "	5 "	1	Adenoids, hypertrophied tonsils	None	Cured
17	C.	3 "	M.	Pharynx, tonsils, larynx	Dr. A. Fanoni	3000 "	3d "	5 "	1	Chr. pharyngitis, chr. tonsillitis, vegetations	None	Cured
1901												
18	H.	4 "	M.	Pharynx, larynx, tonsils	Dr. A. Rose	3000 "	2d "	5 "	1	Hyper. tonsils, adenoid vegetations	None	Cured
19	S.	3 "	F.	Pharynx and larynx	Dr. S. Landsman	2000 "	3d "	6 "	1	Hypertrophied tonsils	None	Cured
20	P.	4 "	F.	Pharynx and larynx	Dr. C. Hoffman	3000 "	2d "	25 "	5	Rhinopharyngitis, hyper. tonsils	None	Cured
21	B.	5 "	F.	Pharynx, tonsils, larynx	Dr. H. Weinstein	2000 "	3d "	6 "	1	Chronic tonsillitis, adenoid vegetations	None	Cured
22	M.	4 "	F.	Larynx	Dr. H. Groehl	3000 "	5th "	6 "	2	Hypertrophied tonsils, adenoids	None	Cured
23	R.	11 mos.	F.	Larynx and tonsils	Dr. W. H. Kahrs	1500 "	2d "	7 "	1	No adenoids or enlarged tonsils visible	Br.-pneu.	Excellent
24	G.	4 "	F.	Larynx, tonsils, pharynx	Dr. A. E. Isaacs	2500 "	3d "	5 "	1	Enlarged hypertrophied tonsils	None	Cured
25	C.	4 "	M.	Pharynx, tonsils, larynx	Dr. A. W. Newfield	4000 "	2d "	12 "	3	Hyper. tonsils, granular pharyngitis	None	Cured
26	K.	2 "	F.	Tonsils, pharynx, larynx	Dr. S. Landsman	3000 "	2d "	6 "	1	Adenoid vegetations, hyper. tonsils	None	Cured

A Study of the Condition of the Upper Air Passages Before and After Intubation of the Larynx. Also, an Inquiry Into the Method of Feeding Employed in the Cases.[1]

Laryngeal stenosis will frequently be relieved after one intubation and one extubation. There are other cases which require several intubations before a permanent cure results.

I have examined a series of children that were operated upon several years ago. Two classes of cases have been selected. One series was seen at the Willard Parker Hospital, and the cases were intubated by the resident or assistant resident physician. The cases in this series cover the years 1896 to 1900, and were under treatment of Dr. E. G. Bryant and Dr. Somerset.

First Series. Children Intubated in the Hospital.—The children admitted to the Willard Parker Hospital belong, as a rule, to the laboring class of people. Exceptionally, the service at the hospital receives patients of a better class. All of the children examined by me belonged to the tenement house district of New York City. The houses are densely crowded tenements having a minimum quantity of fresh air and sunlight. It is not unusual to see cases from such unsanitary surroundings ending fatally. These children are, as a rule, very anæmic and are extremely susceptible to infection.

Hospital Cases: 10.

8 cases required one intubation
1 case required three intubations
1 case required four intubations

Day of the Disease.

4 cases were intubated on the 2d day of illness
1 case was intubated on the 3d day of illness
2 cases were intubated on the 4th day of illness
1 case was intubated on the 5th day of illness
1 case was intubated on the 9th day of illness
1 case was intubated on the 14th day of illness

One case intubated seven years ago has had no illness since. Four cases intubated six years ago are in excellent health to-day. One case has remained entirely well. One case had enlarged cervical lymph nodes. One case had pneumonia one year later. One case had pneumonia and paralysis and five years later had a second attack of diphtheria, but no laryngeal stenosis.

Five cases intubated three years ago are in good condition to-day. Three had measles and bronchitis after recovery. One has not had a day's illness since intubation. One case had a mild attack of croup two years after intubation, but did not require reintubation.

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[1] Paper read before the International Medical Congress held at Madrid, Spain, April 26, 1903.

Rachitis seems to play an important part in the causation of laryngeal stenosis, just as we know that rickets is met with in laryngismus stridulus. Eight cases out of the 10 reported in this series showed some form of rickets.

There seems to be a certain predisposition for the development of laryngeal stenosis in children affected with diphtheria who are rachitic.

Condition of the Throat.—In all of the cases of this series some form of chronic tonsillar or pharyngeal condition was found. Adenoids were also seen in 2 of these cases. Whether or no the hypertrophied tonsils seen in these cases were present at the time of intubation is not known. The fact that 8 cases out of 10 still showed enlarged tonsils, and 1 case, which makes 9 cases, reported having had a tonsillotomy performed, proves that hypertrophied tonsils must have menaced the children's health before the diphtheria.

Feeding During Infancy.—It is certainly an interesting fact that all of the children in this series were breast-fed. When abnormal conditions, as rickets, scurvy, tuberculosis, syphilis, or other undermining disorders, exist, then recurring stenosis of the larynx might possibly be provoked by such chronic disease.

These cases of recurring stenosis sometimes require months and, in rare instances, years of intubating until recovery takes place. I have frequently seen chronic tube cases while making my rounds in the wards at the Willard Parker Hospital.

Intubation has, in America, entirely replaced tracheotomy for the relief of acute laryngeal stenosis. Rubber tubes are used exclusively for intubation. The old metallic tubes have long ago been discarded. Tracheotomy is used as a secondary operation, usually to cure "retained tubes." When laryngeal stenosis persists and the patient cannot get along without the tube, then a tracheotomy is frequently resorted to.

Jennings, of Detroit, with an equally large experience, says that he has never met with the severer forms of the difficulty, but that in two or three instances he has had to continue the intubation as late as the third week after the first insertion, before recovery was complete. His associate, Shurley, has never had any trouble with delay in the removal of the tube. Galatti, in the article above referred to, states that he had 2 chronic stenoses in 31 intubations. He reports Ranke as having had 1 case in many hundred; Heubner, 1 in 250, and Bókay, 2 in 800. McNaughton, of Brooklyn, says that he has had but few cases in many hundred, and these recovered at the latest within several weeks.

At the Nursery and Child's Hospital of New York City there have been no noticeably prolonged intubations. The New York Foundling Hospital has had 6 cases in a total of approximately 500. Investigation of the statistics at this institution forcibly illustrates the advantages in the use of the diphtheria antitoxin. The house physician complained to Dr. Rogers that before the introduction of this remedy his predecessors had always averaged at least one intubation a week, and thereby obtained much valuable experience; but about the time he came into the hospital, the rule was instituted that antitoxin should be given to every patient as soon as there was any suspicion of diphtheria. The result was that he had never in a year's service had a single opportunity to practice intubation on a living subject.

The Dorsal Method of Intubation.—Elsewhere in this article I have referred to the dorsal method of intubation. The great advantage in this method lies in the fact that an intubation tube can be inserted in a child suffering with laryngeal stenosis with the aid of the mother or nurse alone. With the child lying on its back, the arms and feet pinned in a blanket or sheet to prevent struggling, any intelligent person can steady the head and hold the gag in position at the same time, while the physician has both hands free for the introduction of the tube.

The older method required an assistant to hold the child in an upright position, and a second assistant to stand behind the child's head to steady the same and to hold the gag in position. The experience gained in the hospital with both methods has led us to abandon the older method entirely.

Second Series. Children Intubated in Private Practice.—The children of this series were seen in consultation with the family physician, excepting 1 case (Case 11), which was referred to me for personal treatment. They belong to the better class of children, which implies better sanitary surroundings, better food and prompt medical aid when the first symptoms of illness are noticed. It was much easier to study this series of cases, as the physician in attendance, as a rule, gave me the required data.

Case X should be excluded in this study, as the child coughed up its tube (auto-extubation) and died of asphyxia before the physician arrived. Case IX must also be excluded, as it was impossible to obtain satisfactory details concerning the progress of the case after it recovered from the diphtheria.

6 cases were intubated 8 years ago
1 case was intubated 7 years ago
4 cases were intubated 5 years ago
2 cases were intubated 4 years ago
2 cases were intubated 3 years ago
9 cases were intubated 2 years ago

One of the cases in this series contracted scarlet fever and died two years after intubation. So that 3 cases out of this series must be excluded leaving 23 cases from which reports have been received.

Day of the Disease.

1 case was intubated on the 1st day of illness
11 cases were intubated on the 2d day of illness
9 cases were intubated on the 3d day of illness
2 cases were intubated on the 5th day of illness

Number of Intubations Required.

15 cases required one intubation
2 cases required two intubations
3 cases required three intubations
1 case required four intubations
2 cases required five intubations

Length of Time the Tube was Worn.

1 case	26 days	2 cases	7 days
1 case	25 days	5 cases	6 days
1 case	22 days	8 cases	5 days
2 cases	14 days	1 case	4½ days
2 cases	12 days		

The average length of time the tube was worn in the above 23 cases was 9½ days or 228 hours.

Rachitis.—In this second series of cases we are dealing with children brought up in excellent surroundings. In the families of the better class in New York City the majority of mothers do not nurse their own infants. Wet-nurses are not commonly employed. Thus the larger number of these children are to-day brought up by bottle feeding. It is, therefore, no wonder that in the present series of cases rickets due to malnutrition or inanition was very frequently encountered. The susceptibility of the rickety child has frequently been mentioned by many authors. In this second series of cases rachitis was associated in 19 cases.

Condition of the Throat.—Not one of these cases had a normal throat at the time of the intubation. Adenoid vegetations, enlarged tonsils, and chronic rhinopharyngitis were met with in almost every case. When the danger of a diphtheritic laryngeal stenosis in a child is considered, then it is certainly important to urge the removal of hypertrophied tonsils or adenoids if present, and to restore normal conditions in the rhinopharynx if possible. Greater attention should be bestowed on the nose, as the most fatal cases are those of nasal diphtheria in which general sepsis follows.

After-effects Resulting from Intubation.—While some physicians have reported the existence of a bronchial catarrh during the first and second winter months following intubation, the majority of these 16 cases reported absolutely normal conditions. Two cases have had pneumonia, in one child five years after intubation and in the other child three years after intubation.

One very interesting case in this series was a child (an idiot) 4 years old, seen in consultation with Dr. C. Hoffman. This was one of the most trying cases and required five intubations extending over a series of twenty-five days. The child made a splendid recovery. Such cases in private practice must be invariably supervised by a trained nurse. In this particular case careful feeding in addition to competent nursing was the means of saving the child's life.

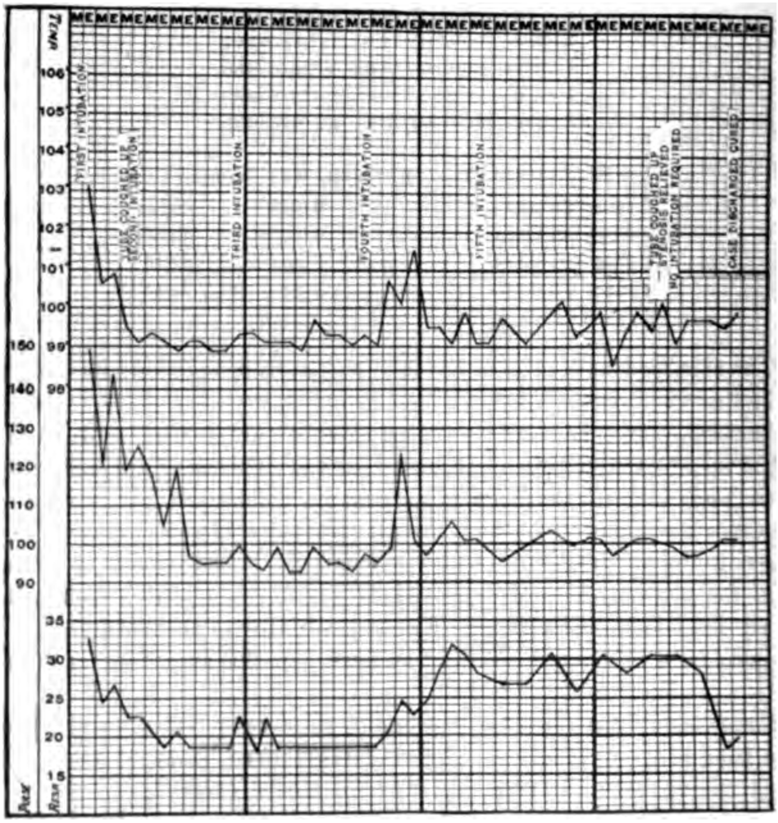

Fig. 185. Laryngeal Diphtheria. Child 4 years old; mentally deficient. Seen in consultation with Dr. C. Hoffmann. (Original.)

Constant cough or laryngitis lasting many months was encountered in 4 cases of my series. All in all, there is no case in my series in which a distinct bronchial or laryngeal catarrh could be traced to or associated with the intubation.

Rogers says: "As regards the etiology of postdiphtheritic stenosis of the larynx and retained intubation tubes, the views of the late Dr. O'Dwyer are, of course, worthy of the greatest consideration. Nevertheless, I believe they are wrong. He maintained that the condition was the fault either of the operator or of the instruments, which means careless or unskilled insertion, or the use of poorly constructed, and, therefore, improperly fitting tubes. Formerly, while he was experimenting with and perfecting his instrument, he sometimes encountered ulcerations and granulations; and the 2 cases he reports of granulations at the base of the epiglottis, where it impinged upon the head of the tube, might properly be counted in this class. At all events there is no other record of a similar occurrence from the use of *the hard-rubber* tube as at present made. It must be admitted, however, that erosions and ulcerations are possible with a metal tube, as its surface soon becomes rough from a deposit of what is apparently calcareous matter. But whether ulcerations and subsequent cicatrices may not be thus produced has very little to do with the matter, as they do not seem to be the usual cause of the stenosis in the reported cases. . . . And it is important, from a medico-legal aspect, as well as for the sake of intubation, to show that neither the operator nor tube, ordinarily, has anything to do with a possible postdiphtheritic stenosis. It is granted that lacerations and serious permanent damage to the larynx can, of course, be inflicted by extreme lack of skill or care; but to claim that this must have happened in all, or even some, of the cases of retained tube is not borne out by the facts. A certain amount of traumatism is necessarily inflicted at every intubation, and if, by any chance, a chronic stenosis follows, the traumatism is always blamed for it. That this is wrong, at least in the average case, is proved to my mind by the pathology of the condition. It is the same whether the stenosis follows intubation or a primary tracheotomy."

Causes of Recurring Stenosis.—Emil Köhl, in his inaugural address at Zurich, in 1884, described very fully the pathological condition of the larynx in cases of chronic postdiphtheritic stenosis with retained tracheal cannula. This article demonstrates most conclusively that not the least frequent cause of the difficulty is a chronic hypertrophic, subglottic laryngitis, a chronic thickening of the soft parts between the vocal cords and the lower border of the cricoid cartilage. The hypertrophy of the soft tissue was so marked that respiration, except through tracheal fistula, was impossible. These cases, of course, had never been intubated; and, therefore, the chronic inflammation within the larynx cannot be charged to the irritation or traumatism consequent upon the insertion or wearing of an intubation tube.

Another and more frequent cause of the stenosis was shown to be granulations and cicatrices in the neighborhood of the tracheal wound or cannula. And the nearer the cannula was to the vocal cords the worse were the stenosis of the larynx was treated by an injection of antitoxin, the child placed under the care of a competent trained nurse with detailed instructions *regarding progressive symptoms. Twelve hours later,* when the *stenosis increased* in severity, I was summoned hurriedly to intubate. In this case the child wore the tube six days, and required but one intubation to complete the cure of the stenosis. In America the majority of intubated cases occur in private practice. Von Bókay states that according to Jacobi, only 5 per cent. of diphtheritic laryngeal stenosis are treated in the special (Willard Parker) hospital. The rest, 95 per cent., occur in private practice.

The smooth rubber tube with or without metal lining is now generally used for the relief of laryngeal stenosis. Smooth rubber tubes, with a retaining swell, the advantage of the same over the metal tube in not having calcareous deposits after being worn for weeks is certainly noteworthy. The corrugated rubber tubes which were introduced by me several years ago have certainly served me very well in many cases of "retained tube."

The following case occurred in the practice of Dr. A. W. Newfield. The child was about 4 years old, and had suffered for several years with hypertrophied tonsils and adenoid vegetations, in addition to chronic pharyngitis. The family physician advised the parents to have the throat operated owing to the danger of infection with diphtheria. This prophylactic measure was not carried out. I saw the case on the second day of illness, in consultation with Dr. Newfield, and found diphtheria involving the pharynx and tonsils which spread very rapidly to the larynx. The same day intubation was required to relieve a severe stenosis. The stenosis was so severe when I saw the child, and the pulse so weak, that it required a rapid introduction of the tube to afford relief. An injection of 3000 units of antitoxin was given. Three days later a second injection of 3000 units was made; so that 6000 units were injected in all. There was recurring stenosis when the tube was removed. It was necessary to intubate within ten minutes. Extubation was performed once every five days, and reintubation was necessary a few minutes to one-half hour after removing the tube. Rubber tubes only were used in this case. After the second intubation an alum gelatine film was used on the tube.

After the third intubation it was deemed necessary to use a corrugated tube dipped in a solution of hot gelatine containing 3 per cent. of ichthyol and alum. This tube was worn about five days. After the extubation the child breathed well for about one hour without a tube. A mild form of stenosis was noticed and it was deemed safe to reintubate with an ichthyol alum gelatine film on a No. 4 corrugated rubber tube. This tube remained about six days and was then removed. Stenosis did not recur and the case was discharged cured. Later on the adenoids and hypertrophied tonsils were removed and the child has been well since.

Conclusion.—All the children in both these series that recovered had been breast-fed. This form of feeding must have had an important bearing on their bony development as well as their muscular structure.

No chronic cough which could be attributed to the wearing of the tube was encountered. It was presumed by me at the outset of my investigation, that I might meet with a series of cases of chronic laryngitis, chronic tracheitis and chronic bronchitis, dating back to the intubation. We know that pressure of the tube has frequently caused decubitus; hence, it is presumed that an inflammatory process might be invited from the wearing of the tube. Comparing an equal number of children of the same age and development who never suffered with diphtheria, nor were intubated, it was found that they suffered with pneumonia and other infectious diseases in the same proportion as children in my series of cases. This would seem to be a splendid argument in favor of intubation, as it shows two important points:—

First.—The tolerance of the larynx to a tube for many weeks, one of my cases having worn a tube twenty-six days, another case twenty-five days.

Second.—That a properly fitting tube constructed of rubber leaves no evidence of chronic inflammation directly traceable to the tube. In every one of my cases I questioned carefully if any catarrh originated from, or could be associated with, the wearing or removal of the tube, and received negative replies.

Equally interesting was it to study the contour of the thorax and to see if the development of the thorax suffered by reason of these children wearing tubes.

In spite of the fact that the large majority in the first series as well as in the second were decidedly rachitic, no deformity of the chest due to imperfect oxygenization could be attributed to the effects of the intubation tube. An etiological factor and one on which a great deal of stress has already been laid, is that 90 per cent. in my first series of cases suffered with chronic throat disease in some form, such as hypertrophied tonsils, chronic pharyngitis, or adenoids. In some all of the above conditions were apparent.

It is safe to presume that chronic throat disease invites infection, and I believe that there is a direct relationship between the seed and the soil. If children's throats are in a normal condition, then the risk of infection is reduced to a minimum. It is our duty, therefore, to urge all mothers to have diseased conditions removed, and thus try to prevent the infection of diphtheria, which is certainly a serious condition.

Recurring Laryngeal Stenosis Following Intubation and Decubitus.

Etiology.—This condition is primarily caused by forcibly pushing a tube into an œdematous or infiltrated mucous membrane. O'Dwyer says that it is caused by using a tube that is too large for the lumen of the larynx; usually in the hands of inexperienced operators. Metallic tubes that have been worn for a long time contain large calcareous deposits—the latter are due to a deposit of lime salts contained in the diphtheritic membrane—and when removing such a tube during extubation, the mucous membrane is easily lacerated, and thus ulceration is caused thereby. One of the most important papers given to the profession was read by the late must always be remembered; hence it is advisable that the operation, be it intubation or tracheotomy, should be done quickly, thus lessening shock.

EXTUBATION.

How to Extubate.—First step in the operation: place gag in position; locate the tube with the left index finger; guide the extractor along the finger until the beak enters the lumen of the tube. Second step in the operation: depress the handle of the extractor to hold tube firmly, and withdraw the tube slowly. (See Plate XXVI.)

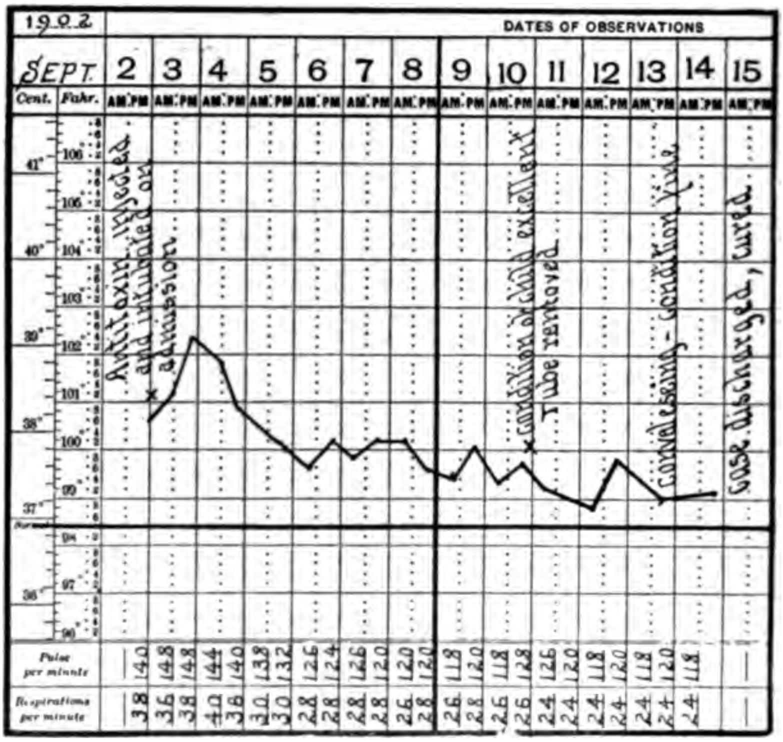

Fig. 187.—Temperature Chart from a Case of Laryngeal Diphtheria. Excellent Result of Intubation and Antitoxin. Doubtful Prognosis. Recovery. (Original.)

When to Extubate.—Five days is a fair length of time for the tube to be left in the larynx. The following rules have served me best in a very large experience in hospital and private practice:—

Let the child's condition be the guide as to when to extubate. My advice is to leave the tube in the larynx at least *four* days, then remove the same.

The question to be considered is, Can the child undergo the shock of extubation, and, if need be, reintubation?

If the temperature is over 100° F., and the pulse-rate is small, rapid, and over 120, it is better to wait with the extubation.

A rubber tube left in the larynx does not have calcareous deposits as we find them on the metal tubes; hence there is no danger in leaving a rubber tube *in situ* for several weeks.

If the tube is plugged with mucus or membrane it may be necessary to remove the tube and clean it. A rattling or crowing sound in addition to laryngeal stenosis usually indicates this condition.

At the Willard Parker Hospital there is no definite rule as to the number of days a tube remains in the larynx. Individual conditions govern the time of extubation. In some cases tubes are removed after forty-eight hours. The severity of the cases admitted to the hospital and the complication must be taken into consideration. Uncomplicated cases may be extubated any time between the third and seventh days when the œdema of the larynx subsides. In a few instances the child expels the tube without having recurring stenosis. This auto-extubation is occasionally seen; it is Nature's method of removing a foreign body after the subsidence of the inflammatory condition.

CHOICE BETWEEN INTUBATION AND TRACHEOTOMY.

In cases where operation is indicated it may be said that intubation has steadily grown in favor, and its advantages, when it is indicated, are so obvious as to require no recapitulation here. On the other hand, conditions are sometimes present that render intubation impracticable or inadmissible, or at least render tracheotomy preferable. It is therefore desirable to keep clearly in mind the factors that determine the choice in favor of one or the other of these operations. This subject has received consideration in a study, by Drs. George Alsberg and Sigmund Heimann, of the cases of diphtheria, to the number of 4033, observed at the Kaiser und Kaiserin Friedrich Kinderkrankenhaus, in Berlin, for the ten years from 1891 to 1900. As a result of this analysis it is concluded that operative intervention in cases of stenosis of the larynx of slight and moderate degree should be obviated as far as possible by means of antitoxin and the employment of sprays. Primary intubation is indicated in all cases of stenosis of the larynx of severe degree in which, so far as the clinical picture makes it appear possible, a cutting operation can be avoided. Primary tracheotomy is indicated in the presence of asphyxia and collapse, of pneumonia, of severe heart disease, of paralysis of the palate and diaphragm, of profound anatomic changes in the pharynx, as well as marked tumefaction of the entire pharyngeal structures when necrotic.

Secondary Tracheotomy is indicated when the symptoms of stenosis persist in marked degree with the tube in place, providing its lumen is not occluded, when pneumonia supervenes, and when paralysis of the palate and diaphragm supervenes. Intubation is not recommended in nursing infants by some writers on account of the diminutiveness of the parts and of the narrow lumen of the pharynx, but especially on account of the increased difficulty in feeding from the presence of the tube, which at this time of life is of vital importance. My personal experience is just the reverse, and my results have been excellent.[1]

TRACHEOTOMY (IN ACUTE OR SUBACUTE LARYNGEAL STENOSIS).

If laryngeal stenosis persists in spite of intubation, then secondary tracheotomy is indicated. When extensive œdema of the larynx exists, in which case intubation fails to relieve, tracheotomy may be required. I have frequently met surgeons who were well posted on tracheotomy, but were not familiar with the delicate *modus operandi* of intubation.

If laryngeal stenosis threatens life, and the physician is not acquainted with the method of intubation, then by all means perform tracheotomy, rather than risk "experimental intubation."

When emergencies arise they should be met by quick action. An interesting case of suffocation due to laryngeal stenosis was told to me by my friend, Dr. George F. Shrady:—

> A child suffering with croup suddenly collapsed and was thought dead, when Dr. Shrady, in the emergency, took a razor which was handy and made an incision into the trachea. He used a bent hairpin instead of a tracheal dilator. The child breathed as soon as oxygen was admitted. The case recovered.

Tracheotomies Performed (Willard Parker Hospital, 1911) with Day of Disease and Number of Days Tracheotomy Tube Remained in the Larynx.

Total number of tracheotomies performed	4
Tracheotomized on first day of disease	3
Tracheotomized on second day of disease	1
Tracheotomy tube remained in larynx one day	1
Tracheotomy tube remained in larynx two days	2
Tracheotomy tube remained in larynx four days	1
Result, 3 deaths; 1 recovery.	
Tracheotomies performed before admission	2

The Operation.—*Anæsthetic:* If time permits, a few drops of chloroform should be given. If septic stupor exists then no anæsthetic should be given.

The high operation, "tracheotomie superieure," in which the incision is made in the upper portion of the trachea, is preferred to the lower operation, advised by Trousseau, known as "tracheotomie inferieure."

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[1] See case of Baby R. in the practice of Dr. Kahrs, "Intubation in Private Practice."

The upper portion of the trachea is quite superficial and it is best to make an incision, exactly in the *median line,* at least two inches in length. It is important to remember that the branches of the inferior thyroid veins are immediately under the place chosen for the operation; hence the parts must be carefully dissected with a blunt instrument, such as the back of a scalpel, until the trachea is reached. If there is severe bleeding the veins should be seized with a forceps unless emergency demands rapidity of action. The dissection should be continued until the trachea is reached. When there is considerable oozing of blood, and our view is thus obstructed, we must remember to keep in the center of the throat, which invariably brings us to the rings of the trachea. By placing the finger in the wound we will feel the respiratory movement of the trachea. When the trachea is reached it should be hooked up with a tenaculum and an incision made large enough to admit the tracheotomy tube. The rush of air, so-called *tubal sound,* characteristic of intubation is also heard when tracheotomy is properly performed.

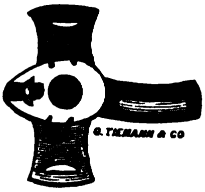

Fig. 188.—Silver Trachea Cannula used in tracheotomy.

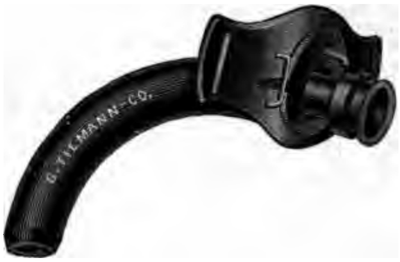

Fig. 189.—Hard-rubber Trachea Cannula.

After-effects of the Tracheotomy Tube.—The presence of the tube in the trachea invariably excites cough. This expels loose membranes and other viscid accumulations. High fever sometimes follows this operation, although as a rule the temperature will only reach 101° or 102° F.

The pulse-rate should be carefully observed; a gradually increasing pulse-rate during the first three days after the operation is a very bad sign.

Complications.—Broncho-pneumonia and nephritis are to be feared, for they frequently terminate fatally. The treatment of complications is the same as though the disease existed independent of the operation.

After-treatment.—Careful aseptic methods must be the rule from the moment the child's stenosis is relieved. The infection of the wound will always be an added source of danger. As the majority of cases of tracheotomy will be performed for extensive pseudo-membranous stenosis, we must remember that septic diphtheria *per se* may cause death independent of the added danger incident to the opening of the trachea. All oozing of blood must be checked; pressure with sterile gauze saturated with Monsell's solution has served me well. I have also used gauze dusted with a powder consisting of:—

℞ Europhen	7 parts
Alum	3 parts

To Check Hæmorrhage.—The local application of adrenalin solution, 1 to 5000, is very valuable during the operation.

The internal cannula should be removed and cleansed every two or three hours, wiped dry and replaced. In rare instances it may be necessary to cleanse the cannula less frequently. This can best be determined by watching the respirations and instructing the trained nurse as to when the caliber of the tube requires cleansing. Noisy, rattling sounds due to the presence of mucus in the tube do not necessarily mean that the cleansing of the cannula is urgent, if the child is quiet or asleep. If the child is restless and turns its head from side to side, and usually mucous rattling is heard in addition, then it is an indication for cleansing the tube.

Cleansing the Wound.—Each day following a tracheotomy, it is advisable to place the child on the operating table, withdraw the tracheotomy tube and replace it with a new one.

A writer states that "after the second or third removal the larynx should be examined to see if it is free and there is no further use for the cannula." My experience with tracheotomized cases has not been as good as that, for rarely have I seen a tracheal cannula that could be dispensed with, although antitoxin was administered, in less than seven to twenty-one days. The severity of my cases may account for the difference in experience. At times, in spite of the greatest amount of care, even in the hands of experienced operators, cicatrices of the trachea resulting in permanent contraction or exuberant granulations at the site of incision will require the continued use of the tracheotomy tube, as in cases described in the article on "Intubation," known as "retained-tube cases."

CHAPTER VII.

RUBELLA (RÖTHELN, GERMAN MEASLES, FALSE MEASLES).

RUBELLA is an exanthematous eruption simulating measles. Corlett's description of rubella is so classic that I give it word for word.[1]

"Rubella is a mild form of infection which always follows a benignant course and first appears as a general or constitutional disease, accompanied by a slight rise of temperature and slight feeling of illness. In this it conforms to the other affections of this class.

"The local manifestations, while partaking of the character of those observed in both scarlet fever and measles, are distinct, and possess an individuality which, as a rule, may be recognized by the trained eye.

"**Etiology.**—While we have no exact knowledge of the cause of the disease and in what respect the virus differs from that of other diseases to which it bears the closest resemblance, yet we do know that it is contagious, and always gives rise to a like disease: in short, conforms to the type.

"It occurs but once in the individual, from which we infer that it is self-protective, while it affords no protection to or modification of measles or scarlatina; nor has it appeared that they offer any protection against rubella. It must be remembered, moreover, that even mild forms of the various exanthemata are self-protective. The fact that the patient has had at some previous time either scarlet fever or measles, or both of these affections in a well-marked degree, often leads to its recognition. Sometimes, even before its true nature has been definitely settled in the mind of the medical attendant, the disease disappears.

"Like the other exanthemata, it always appears in the form of an epidemic, which seems to bear little or no relation to epidemics of other diseases, such as scarlet fever or measles."

Bacteriology and Pathology.—Owing to the mild character of the disease, the pathological changes have not been studied. There are certain changes seen in the skin, described by Thomas. Nothing definite, however, can be stated. Bacteria in the blood of children suffering with rubella have been described by several authors; these are by no means pathognomonic of this condition.

"It sometimes occurs independently; again, two or more of the epidemic exanthemata prevail at the same time. It must be admitted that extraneous conditions of weather and possibly of sanitation predispose in a like degree to all. Though epidemics of rubella seem to occur at less frequent intervals than do those of either scarlatina or measles, there can be no doubt that very many epidemics of rubella escape recognition, and are regarded as mild or aberrant forms of one or the other of the first-named affections. While the author believes, with Atkinson, that unless more exact methods are adopted in the study of the exanthemata there is still danger of endless confusion, and that the practice of relegating all mild or otherwise anomalous forms of measles or scarlatina to rubella is, as it was thirteen years ago, far too prevalent; yet the remedy lies in giving to this important group of affections a more conspicuous position than it now holds in the curriculum of clinical instruction."

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[1] For a very minute description of this disease the reader is referred to Corlett's "Treatise on the Acute Exanthemata." Published by F. A. Davis Company.

The period of incubation is usually from fifteen to eighteen days.

In New York City cases of rubella are excluded from school for one week, at the end of which time they will be readmitted on a medical certificate. Children in the family who have had the disease may remain in school.

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—The symptoms may be so mild that they are frequently overlooked. The prodromal symptoms appear a few hours before the rash is seen. Some authors state that in the majority of cases they are wholly absent. I have frequently seen catarrhal symptoms such as coryza, in addition to suffusion of the eyes, on the day previous to the eruption.

Throat symptoms, such as congestion and swelling of the tonsils and fauces, are usually seen. Cough and hoarseness may also be present. The buccal mucous membrane does not have an enanthem. Forchheimer[1] describes what he considers a characteristic enanthem in rubella which appears simultaneously with the exanthem and remains from 12 to 14 hours. Its favorite location is on the soft palate, sometimes extending to the hard palate. It consists of small, discrete, dark-red but not dusky papules, which soon disappear, leaving no trace behind. The rest of the mouth may or may not be congested.

Sometimes there is anorexia and occasionally nausea or vomiting. J. Lewis Smith describes convulsions seen in the disease. The temperature varies between 100° and 101° F., rarely higher. The tongue is not as thickly coated as in measles, although the papillæ may be enlarged. These projecting papillæ appear on the tip of the tongue. The characteristic strawberry tongue is absent.

Sneezing may be present and coryza may be absent, or *vice versâ.*

Thierfelder[2] states that "swelling of the subauricular and superior jugular lymphatic glands may be looked upon as a constant prodromal symptom." Atkinson[3] says "enlargement of the superficial lymphatic glands of the neck may be the most striking symptom, and sometimes attracts attention several days before the beginning of the eruption."

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[1] "German Measles," Twentieth Century Practice of Medicine, New York, 1898.

[2] Thierfelder: Greifsw. Med. Beitr., B. ii, Ber., p. 14, 1864.

[3] Atkinson (loc. cit., p. 23).

Corlett[1] says "his cases show adenopathy in 96 per cent., of which the maxillary and superficial or post-cervical were the most frequently involved; next the occipital, posterior and anterior auricular; and sometimes the superficial inguinal, axillary, and the epitrochlear. In the neck the inflammation may be sufficiently severe to interfere with free movement, and in two or three instances it has given rise to marked œdema of the surrounding parts." Suppuration of the glands is never observed. The lymphatic ganglia are also involved in the regions affected. The spleen is seldom involved.

Pauline M., 6 years old, was brought to my office in an apparently good condition. I was told that the child had a rash on her chest and back, and that the temperature was 100° F. in the rectum. There was sneezing, but no cough nor bronchial symptoms. There was an enlargement of the glands on both sides of the neck along the posterior border of the sterno-mastoid muscle. The buccal mucous membrane, pharynx, and tonsils were but slightly inflamed. The conjunctivæ were of a deep pink color. The rash was scattered over the abdomen and chest and was crescentic in its arrangement, similar to that seen in measles. The highest temperature reached was 101° F., in the evening, pulse was 100, and the respiration 24. The treatment consisted in giving a mild laxative and liquid diet. Strict isolation was insisted upon. The eruption remained about three days. The child recovered without any complication.

The Eruption.—The rash is first seen on the face and scalp. It is described as "faint pinkish maculæ, at first discrete, but sometimes becoming more or less confluent within a few hours." The eruption spreads downward to the neck and upper part of the abdomen until the upper and lower extremities are covered. The palms and soles are usually associated in this general eruption. The eruption reaches its full development after one or two days. It spreads slowly and fades on the face when it is about reaching its height on the lower extremities. Hardaway believes that this dissimilarity in the appearance of the eruption is a valuable means of distinguishing rubella from measles. "The individual lesions are sometimes perceptibly elevated and vary in size from a pin-head to a small bean." They are often slightly elongated or irregularly round in shape, with an ill-defined border, and disappear completely on pressure. Unlike measles, they show no tendency to form groups, clusters, or crescents, and in some cases manifest a feebler predilection to coalesce. Sometimes, however, when confluent they extend at the periphery, coalesce, and form extensive areas, when the resemblance to scarlatina may lead to an error in diagnosis.

"Usually the plaques thus formed are found only on certain parts, while on the remaining portions of the body the eruption presents the more usual appearance. The color is always lighter than that observed in scarlet fever, and in a strong light the slight elevations which correspond to the original lesions may be discerned. Further, the eruption is fairly uniform in color and may be described as of a faded rose, or pink tint, never, in my experience, presenting the fiery red of scarlatina nor the dusky, bluish red of measles."

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[1] Corlett, "A Treatise on the Acute Infectious Exanthemata," p. 356.

Subjective Symptoms.—These are usually so mild that children do not complain. I have seen cases of rubella in the Kaiser and Kaiserin Frederick Hospital, in Berlin, while making rounds with Professor Baginsky, which were of a very mild nature and in which hardly any subjective symptoms were complained of.

The Fever.—A peculiarity of this condition is that the fever does not correspond with the eruption, in intensity. Von Nymann studied 119 cases of rubella. He found that 58 cases showed no rise in temperature. In the remaining 61 cases the temperature was as follows:—

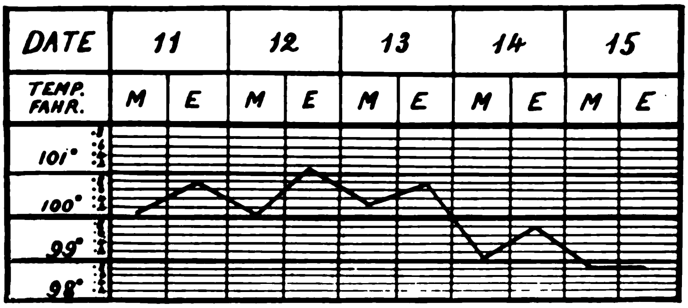

Fig. 190.—Temperature Chart. Case of Rubella. (Original.)

In 39 cases the highest record was 100.4° F. (38.0° C.)
In 14 cases the highest record was 101.3° F. (38.5° C.)
In 6 cases the highest record was 102.2° F. (39.0° C.)
In 2 cases the highest record was 103.1° F. (39.5° C.)

Fever never remains more than four days *unless some complication exists.* The pulse and respiration do not show much change, but usually correspond with the temperature. Sometimes a slight albuminuria is present.

Desquamation.—A general desquamation is absent. Just as the rash spreads from place to place and is regional in character, so also is the desquamation regional. There is therefore no distinct stage of desquamation that can be applied to the disease as a whole.

Differential Diagnosis.—The following distinctive points are taken from Corlett:—

"First.—That rubella is sometimes feebly contagious, while measles is always violently contagious.

"Second.—The prodromal stage is always short and quite insignificant in rubella, while in measles it continues from three to four days.

"Third.—In measles the prodromal stage is usually accompanied by marked constitutional symptoms, with catarrh of the upper air passages, lacrymation, photophobia, and a more or less characteristic eruption in the mouth, which appears from twelve to forty-eight hours before the cutaneous exanthem. In rubella no characteristic prodromata are observed, and only at the beginning of the eruptive stage is there usually a slight hyperæmia of the conjunctivæ, of the faucial mucous membrane, and rarely of the upper air passages. On the soft palate and uvula there is sometimes a punctate or faint macular enanthem, which by some is considered distinctive. Even in mild cases of measles the disturbance of the mucous membranes is more severe than in severe cases of rubella, and there is always, so far as I have observed, a bluish or skim-milk tint to the mucous membrane of the mouth, which I have never found in rubella. In rubella, sore throat is present in nearly all cases, while in measles sore throat is uncommon.

"Fourth.—The eruption in rubella appears most frequently on the first and second day, rarely later. It often disappears from parts first attacked before other regions become involved. It is of a pale red or pinkish color, very rarely assuming a dusky tint, and the individual spots are surrounded by a faint areola, thus obscuring the outline of the lesion. The spots are papulo-macular, for the most part round or slightly oval in shape, and present no tendency to form crescents or groupings. Sometimes by coalescing they unite to form extensive areas, which in all cases, either at the periphery or on more remote parts, are associated with the discrete, small macules which give character to the eruption. The rash rarely lasts longer than three days, and most frequently it disappears on the upper part of the body on the second; while in measles the eruption almost always appears on the morning of the fourth day, sometimes on the third, and rarely earlier. In measles the color is of a dark or purplish red, and the lesions are well defined, with normal skin intervening. They enlarge at the periphery and show a marked tendency to form groups and crescents. These are especially marked on the face, neck, and upper part of the trunk. In all cases the individual lesions are larger than in rubella; so that the whole surface of the body may be involved at the same time, consequently, it remains longer than that of rubella, lasting from four to five days, or longer, when defervescence begins.

"Fifth.—In rubella the superficial lymphatic glands of the neck are nearly always involved, being swollen and sometimes painful; while in measles marked or painful enlargement of the glands of the neck is decidedly uncommon.

"Sixth.—In rubella the temperature may be only slightly above the normal at any time during the course of the disease, and it rarely exceeds

102° F. (38.8° C.). Nor is the temperature curve in any way characteristic of the affection. Further, it is usually of short duration and rarely continues beyond the second or third day. In measles fever is always present and the temperature is sometimes high. There is an initial rise of temperature during the prodromal stage, which usually subsides, returning just previous to the appearance of the eruption, and attaining its maximum at the height of the efflorescence. The fever may continue until the seventh or eighth day.

"Seventh.—Rubella is seldom accompanied by complications or followed by sequelæ, while in measles complications are common and constitute the most serious feature of the disease."

In studying the above we can readily see that measles is very frequently mistaken for rubella. Scarlet fever has a small punctate rash very uniform in character. The temperature, and the characteristic throat and tongue will usually differentiate this condition.

Syphilis is frequently mistaken for rubella, but the absence of the characteristic initial lesion will aid in establishing the true diagnosis. Before making a positive diagnosis we should see that our patient is not suffering from a drug eruption.

Complications.—These are rarely seen. The disease is so benign that it rarely leaves any after-effects. Recurring rashes have been described by various authors, hence, a *relapse* is possible. This second rash does not differ in character from the first. The contagious nature of this condition has been well established. Hatfield reports[1] that of 196 children in an asylum, 110 were affected. Corlett believes that it is as contagious as measles, but the contagium retains its vitality longer and hence resembles scarlatina. The infectious nature of this disease has been studied by Edwards, who found that 75 per cent. of cases in an epidemic in Philadelphia could be traced to infection from the bunks of ships.

Course.—Rubella runs a mild course. Cases seen by me during an epidemic in the winter of 1903-1904 remained ill about three to four days, rarely five days. Some authors state that children with rubella are ill one and two weeks.

Prognosis.—This is always good. With good sanitary surroundings, aided by careful diet, recovery always takes place.

Treatment.—A child with rubella should be put to bed and kept confined until all evidence of eruption has disappeared. A liquid diet should be prescribed. The gastro-intestinal tract must be watched; the bowels and kidneys assisted if necessary.

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[1] Chicago Medical Examiner, August, 1881.

DUKE'S DISEASE (FOURTH DISEASE).

Many authors dispute the existence of a fourth disease, and maintain that abortive types of scarlet fever or abnormal types of rubella are the symptoms observed in so-called fourth disease.

The existence of a separate exanthematous eruption has been brought before the profession many times. As early as 1885 Filatow, a Russian, outlined the symptoms of a fourth disease.

The characteristic symptoms are an incubation period varying between nine and twenty-one days, thus resembling rubella. The eruption, according to Duke, is of an erythematous character and is seen on the face, especially involving the skin surrounding the mouth. There are no pharyngeal or tonsillar patches visible. The tongue does not show the characteristic strawberry appearance of scarlet fever. There is an absence of fever in most cases, and the active symptoms subside after two or three days. The lymph nodes in the neck, axilla, and inguinal region are palpably swollen. Following the eruption there is a fine, mealy desquamation.

CHAPTER VIII.

MEASLES (MORBILLI, RUBEOLA).

Measles is an acute eruptive disease associated with fever. It is caused by the invasion of a specific micro-organism the character of which has not yet been definitely determined.

Bacteriology.—Anderson and Goldberger have settled the question of the period of infectivity of the blood in measles. By inoculating monkeys with human blood from patients suffering with measles they find that the period of infection is greatest just before, and for about twenty-four hours after, the first appearance of the exanthem. At the end of about twenty-four hours from the first appearance of the eruption, the infectivity of the blood appeared greatly reduced and became progressively less thereafter. The virus of measles belongs to the ultra-microscopic group. Aronson and Sommerfeld found that the toxicity of the urine was increased in measles. Thus, if 2 c.c. of urine from a case of measles were injected intravenously into a guinea-pig, the pig died immediately with the symptoms of anaphylactic shock, or else became extremely ill. While this same toxicity can be found in children suffering with the fourth disease, and also with the serum disease, no such toxicity was found in urine from cases of scarlet fever, pertussis, typhoid, and tuberculosis.

Aronson and Sommerfeld concluded from their experiments that the urine test will be a strong differential point in diagnosis between scarlet fever and measles. It would be important to note that the virus has not been demonstrated in the mealy desquamation.

Etiology.—Measles is a contagious and to a less extent an infectious disease. It is usually communicated direct from person to person. Intermediate contagion is comparatively rare. Contagion is possible three or four days before the rash appears on the skin, and continues until desquamation has ceased. Children differ as to their susceptibility, some contracting the disease by very short exposure, while others require a longer and more intimate contact.

The disease can be more readily conveyed in poorly ventilated or crowded apartments, schools, and kindergartens, where many children are intimately associated.

Period of Incubation.—The period of incubation ranges between nine and fourteen days, the average being eleven days. Some authors[1] give eighteen to twenty-one days as the period of incubation when measles occurs a second time.

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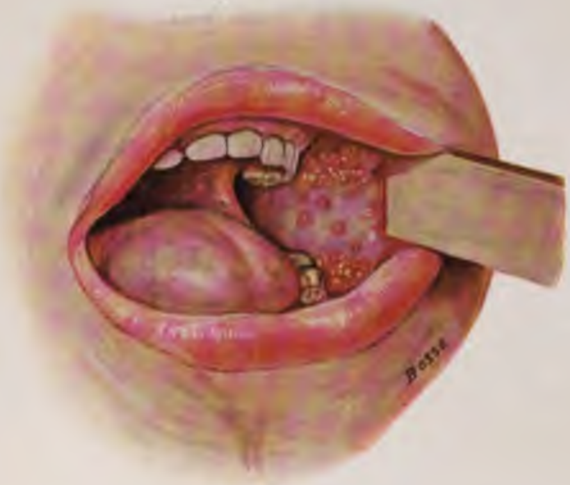
[1] Graham: Article on "Measles," Morrow's "System of Dermatology," 1894, vol. iii.

PLATE XXVII



Earliest Symptom of Measles. Can be seen several days before eruption on body appears. Characteristic bluish-white speck on a rose-colored background. Minute white dots separated from one another, best seen on inside of cheek. They are very dense near the teeth; more discrete away from the teeth. Strong sunlight or reflected light will aid in locating them.

In New York City cases of measles are excluded from school until five days after the appearance of the rash, at which time, if he is otherwise well and all catarrhal discharges have ceased and the cough has disappeared, he may return. Children and other members of the family who have had the disease may continue in school, provided the quarantine at home is properly observed. Children and other members of the family who have not had the disease, and are immediately removed to another residence, may return to school at the end of fourteen days, the usual limit of the period of incubation.

Pathology.—In a study of the early mucous lesions in the mouth Slawyk found that the epithelial cells were thickened and in some instances had undergone fatty degeneration. No specific micro-organism has been found in the lesions. Frequently there is a tendency to the formation of ulcers, which extends to the deeper parts. Unna called attention to the thrombosis of superficial vessels of the skin in a severe type of measles resembling smallpox. When gangrene existed, streptococci were always present. Corneil and Babes report a special form of pneumonia beginning as an interstitial pneumonia and later giving rise to a fibrinous effusion into the alveoli. It involves the lymphatic system, the interlobular and interalveolar tissue.

The toxic effect of the measles virus resembles pathological changes noted in diphtheria. They can be found in the central nervous system. No doubt, the toxin generated by a specific organism similar to that of the Loeffler bacillus found in diphtheria causes the degenerative changes.

Symptoms.—*Prodromal Stage or Period of Invasion:* The first symptoms are those of an ordinary coryza, sneezing, dry cough, and watering of the eyes (lachrymation), with photophobia. Moderate fever, temperature from 101° to 102° F., rarely higher during the first day. There is sometimes vomiting.

This condition lasts about three days and is followed by the characteristic eruption. This eruption is first seen on the face or neck on the morning of the fourth day. Very young infants show extreme irritability and restlessness. The tongue is covered with a white fur. The papillæ are red and swollen. They are not as conspicuous as in scarlet fever. There is intense dryness and thirst, with marked anorexia, and usually constipation.

The temperature shows great variability. Wunderlich, Thomas and von Jurgensen, who have studied the temperature exhaustively, state that it cannot be considered characteristic, owing to its frequent variations. The temperature, after having reached 102° or even 104° F., will on the second day of the disease drop to nearly normal. There is usually a morning remission to the temperature. The temperature in a characteristic case is sometimes deceptive, so that after three or four days of illness there may be a sudden activity of all symptoms with a rise of temperature. The temperature frequently reaches 105° F.

Early Symptoms of Measles.—The absence of the thick epidermic covering which masks the first pathological manifestations in the skin (exanthem) is more readily seen on the delicate mucous surfaces (enanthem).

The enanthem in measles has long been known. It has been studied by Willan, in 1806; by Heim, in 1812; in Dunglison's "Cyclopædia of Practical Medicine," in 1854; by Trousseau, in 1866. Niemeyer's "Practice of Medicine," 1876, vol. ii, p. 528, mentions Rehn, who studied an eruption in the cheek, gums, lips, and fauces. Rilliet and Barthez, 1854, and Monti, in 1873, devote considerable attention to the prodromal enanthem of measles.

Flindt, of Denmark, describes it at length in the "Sundheds-collegium," as follows:—

"First day of the fever: A slight, diffuse erythema of the throat.

"Second day of the fever: A fairly dark redness without marked œdema of posterior pharyngo-palatine arch and tonsils, which on the anterior palatine arch (arcus glosso-palatinus) and velum palati is somewhat less deep in color and of an irregularly diffused or mottled appearance. On the evening of the second day of the fever the mucous surfaces of the tonsils, and the posterior palatine arch, have undergone but little or no change, appearing as a uniformly red erythema, with slight œdema. On the anterior surface of the soft palate, and the posterior part of the hard palate, as well as occasionally on the remaining normal mucous surfaces, a distinct enanthema appears. The lesions are round or irregular in shape, of a bright-red color, having an ill-defined margin, with little or no elevation at this time above the surrounding surface. They range from a pin-head to a lentil in size, and occur singly, or are scattered irregularly over the surface. In places there is a tendency for the lesions to cluster in groups and to become blended.

"They acquire a peculiar appearance on account of numerous small, white, glistening points (simulating minute vesicles), which occupy the middle of the small, red macules. These manifestations in the macules are irregularly grouped. One can see and feel the minute vesicles elevated above the surrounding areas. The palpebral conjunctiva is hyperæmic in its entire extent. Besides the reticular and macular reddening of the conjunctiva, which is due to the disposition of the conjunctival vessels, there are also small, glistening, miliary elevations similar to the elevations in the palate.

"Third day of the fever: The mucous surfaces of the buccal cavity, which up to this time have been only slightly hyperæmic, are now found to be invaded by the lesions previously described. These latter are strongly marked over the entire anterior surface of the velum palati, the glosso-palatine arch, and usually also over the contiguous two-thirds of the hard palate. The red spots are sometimes very numerous, at other times isolated, and again, by blending, they form irregular figures of a stronger red than previously seen. Here and there a faint appearance of the previously described vesicle-like formations is seen projecting above the surrounding surface. On the other hand, they may also be found on the apparently normal mucous membrane. Similarly grouped spots with whitish vesicles now also appear on the inner surface of the cheeks, especially on the part opposite the juxtaposition of the upper and lower molar teeth.

"As a rule, the gums and the inner surface of the lips retain their normal color, or at most are only slightly hyperæmic. It is, indeed, seldom that the eruption appears on these parts. The tonsils and both pharyngopalatine arches still remain red.

"The palpebral conjunctiva retains its deep-red color, but no spots are visible, excepting the minute vesicles previously described. At this time the eruption breaks forth on the skin. On the evening of the third day there is little or no change perceptible.

"Fourth day of the fever: On the palate and inner surface of the cheeks the spots stand out prominently, while in many places there is a tendency to merge by enlargement of the individual lesions, and on the surfaces last invaded they are more copious than ever. The conjunctival exanthem is now disappearing. On the evening of this day there is no change noted.

"Fifth day of the fever: The exanthem in the buccal cavity is more marked than heretofore. Frequently at this time there appear faint-reddish spots on the mucous surfaces of the lips, even extending to the exposed cutaneous margin. On the gums they are seldom present and never distinct. The hyperæmia of the posterior fauces remains unchanged. The skin exanthem begins to fade, and the temperature falls.

"Sixth day of the fever: The exanthem of the mucous surfaces is no longer visible, except a slight diffuse redness of the palate and the inner surface of the cheeks. Fever ends."

This characteristic enanthem is seldom absent. Slawyk[1] found it present in 90 per cent. of all cases examined.

Koplik described these symptoms[2] and to him belongs the credit of having popularized the enanthem. It is generally known as Koplik's sign. The spots are best seen on the inside of the cheeks opposite the molar teeth, although I have seen them very clearly defined on the mucous membrane of the upper lip corresponding to the incisors.

The patient must be examined in a strong sunlight or with a good electric light. A yellow gaslight, for instance, is very unsatisfactory.

Differential Value of this Sign.—This enanthem is of great value in differentiating measles from other exanthemata, notably, however, from antitoxin rashes, drug eruptions, and eruptions associated with toxæmia from gastric fevers.

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[1] Slawyk: Deut. med. Woch., April 28, 1898.

[2] Archives of Pediatrics, December, 1896; Medical Record, 1898.

Period of Efflorescence (Eruptive Stage).—The eruption usually appears on the fourth day of the disease. Sometimes it appears as early as the third and sometimes as late as the fifth day. The first spots appear on the forehead or the temples, behind the ears, and on the sides of the neck. Later, spots appear about the eyes, mouth, and chin. When the rash is at its height then a *crescentic* character, first described by Willan, will be noticed. The constitutional disturbances increase in severity. The cough is more pronounced and there is a decided interference with the respiration. Nosebleed is quite frequent. Constipation is usually followed by very loose bowels.

The Rash.—The rash is of a dark-red, sometimes a purplish, color, of a round, oval or irregular shape. The skin between the rash remains intact, although the face has a puffy, œdematous appearance. The eruption extends over the trunk and extremities, including the palms and soles, the arms and legs, the forearms and legs being the last to become affected.

When the rash reaches its height the constitutional symptoms subside. It is not infrequent to see a *normal temperature two days after the rash has completely covered the body.* In some instances there is a crisis, although the usual rule is for the temperature to fall gradually by lysis. A subnormal temperature frequently follows and accompanies the period of convalescence and until the patient is normal.

The catarrhal symptoms continue to increase in severity with the development of the rash.

There are moist râles heard on auscultation. The sputum as well as the nasal discharge becomes sero-purulent. A bronchitis or a pneumonia should be suspected, if the respiration is exaggerated. The *pulse-respiration ratio will be found of great value in diagnosing latent pneumonia.* The urine will show the excess of urates, and sometimes transitory albuminuria or hyaline casts may be found. The diazo reaction is sometimes noted, but it does not teach us anything of value in either the diagnosis or prognosis. This stage of the disease rarely lasts more than from four to six days.

Stage of Desquamation, or Convalescent Period.—The eruption on the skin of the face, neck, and upper part of the chest fades and there is a slight, branny desquamation. This is less marked than in scarlet fever, and is so fine on the trunk and extremities that it may be unobserved. *It is best seen on the sides of the nose, temples and chin. Large, flaky scales are rarely met with in measles.* After the eruption disappears, a certain amount of pigment remains for a week or two where the rash existed.

Atypical or Anomalous Conditions.—Certain symptoms of normal measles vary in different epidemics, although the majority of cases present distinct clinical features. Predisposing factors, such as rickets and scurvy, possibly tuberculosis, will frequently alter the type of the disease or modify the symptoms. Edgar[1] reports an epidemic of 423 cases in which 123 adhered to the regular type.

Abortive Type.—We occasionally see a child with catarrhal symptoms and an eruption lasting but one or two days, after which the child is as well as ever. Such cases will frequently baffle the physician because of the irregular course. These cases belong to the abortive type.

Typhus Fever.—Typhus fever frequently resembles measles. There is an absence of the catarrhal symptoms common to measles. The eruption is more marked on the body, less marked on the face. In typhus there are severe nervous and cerebral manifestations which rarely exist in measles.

In measles the eruption is macular or papular and arranged in irregular, crescentic groups, and begins on the face.

In typhus the eruption is rarely seen on the face and is petechial in character.

Anaphylaxis.[2]—Morbilliform rashes frequently follow the ingestion of certain albuminous foods, so that some children will be covered with an eruption resembling measles when partaking of eggs or meat. Other children will have a severe eruption after an injection of horse-serum. This subject has been described in detail in the chapter on "Diphtheria."

The characteristic feature of an anaphylactic reaction (morbilliform type) is the absence of the catarrhal symptoms. There is no conjunctivitis nor cough, which latter always accompanies true measles.

The temperature rises the day preceding the eruption, and returns to normal on the appearance of the exanthem.

Mild Forms.—Measles may be present without catarrhal symptoms. In such cases fever may be slight or absent. In other cases the catarrhal symptoms are severe, *while the cutaneous exanthem is almost wholly absent* (morbilli sine morbillis). Such cases might readily escape notice unless they partake of a series during an epidemic in which both the mild and the severe type are found.

Relapsing Form, or Second Attack.—A relapse is said to occur in rare instances after the exanthem has disappeared. When the second rash appears there is a return of fever and also the other constitutional symptoms. Recurring measles is often a very serious matter, owing to the already weakened state resulting from the first invasion.

Corlett doubts the so-called relapses and believes that they are due to a direct reintoxication by the specific virus.

Severe or Malignant Forms.—Malignant measles is that form in which there is a very high fever, rapid pulse, labored breathing, and great prostration. The fatal issue most frequently occurs on the second day of the exanthem. We frequently meet with a typhoidal or a toxic form in which the symptoms are of a most malignant character. The mouth becomes parched and the tongue brown and dry, resembling a typical typhoidal condition.

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[1] Can. Med. Record, December, 1892.

[2] See "Anaphylaxis in Diphtheria."

The bowels are loose and the quantity of urine diminished. Convulsions resulting from the general toxæmia are very common. It is usually fatal and rarely ends in recovery. Where there is severe respiratory disturbance, with difficult breathing, it is called the *suffocative form*. In this form we have principally cough and expectoration with severe dyspnœa.

The patient is cyanotic. Mucous râles are heard early in the disease, and it not infrequently ends in a broncho-pneumonia.

Hæmorrhagic forms, known as the black measles, are frequently described. The mild form of hæmorrhagic measles has been described by various authors. Edgar reports 200 cases out of 423, or 47 per cent. of the hæmorrhagic form. Holt found it in 5 per cent. of his cases. The cutaneous exanthem assumes a dark bluish or purplish tint, which gradually deep-

TABLE NO. 59.—*Showing 503 Cases of Measles and Complications, Treated in the Riverside Hospital, New York City, During the Months of January to July, Inclusive.*

	No. of Cases.		Uncomplicated Measles.		Measles and Diphtheria.		Measles and Pneumonia.		Measles, Scarlet Fever and Diphtheria.		Measles and Scarlet Fever.	
1904	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths
Jan.	34	4	31	1	2	2	1	1				
Feb.	70	8	62	1	7	6	1	1				
Mar.	133	14	111	2	9	6	4	4	2	1	7	1
Apr.	103	15	81	0	8	8	10	7	1	0		
May	106	16	77	2	13	4	13	8	1	1	2	1
June	37	8	23	0	7	3	7	5				
July	20	5	12	0	3	1	5	4				
Total Cases	503		400		49		41		4		9	
Total Deaths		70		6		30		30		2		2

ens as the process continues, to a bluish-black color. Frequently the whole body shows a tendency to bleed. Thus the mucous surfaces are implicated, giving rise to epistaxis, bleeding from the gums, dysentery stools and hæmorrhages from the genito-urinary tract. Where a tendency to hæmorrhage exists, as in hæmophilic subjects (bleeders), they are especially predisposed to the hæmorrhagic form.

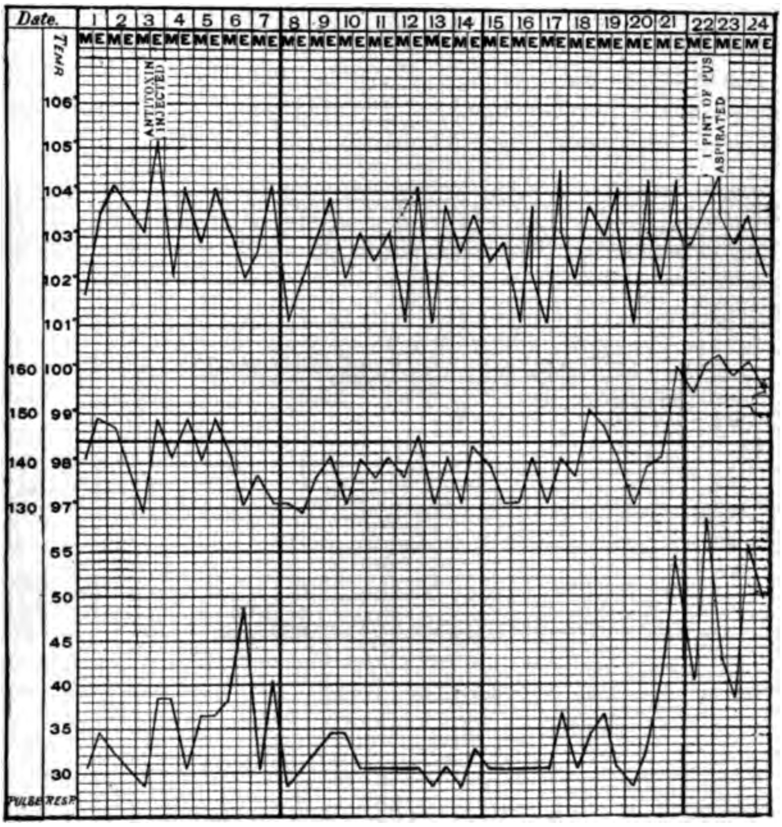

Fig. 191.—**A Case of Malignant Measles, complicated by Diphtheria and ending with Empyema. Male child, 3 years old. Septic from beginning. Fatal termination. Seen in my service at Riverside Hospital, New York City. (Original.)**

Complications.—*Pulmonary:* There seems to be a predisposition to pulmonary disease, commencing with a bronchial catarrh, especially in those children with feeble resisting power. The inflammatory condition extends into the smaller ramifications of the bronchial tubes, causing capillary bronchitis. When this occurs it should be viewed with alarm. The child shows dyspnœa and adynamic symptoms, owing to difficult oxygenation.

The Larynx.—One of the most frequent and fatal complications met with in children is laryngitis. This may be:—

(a) Spasmodic.

(b) Phlegmonous.

(c) Membranous.

The last named complication is the one most frequently met with, especially in institutions. It is most common during the eruptive stage as early as the third or fourth day. The symptoms are the same as those met with in laryngeal diphtheria accompanied by stenosis of the larynx.

The Klebs-Loeffler bacillus is sometimes found on bacteriological examination of the pseudo-membrane. It can be found in 6 to 10 per cent. of all cases of membranous laryngitis.

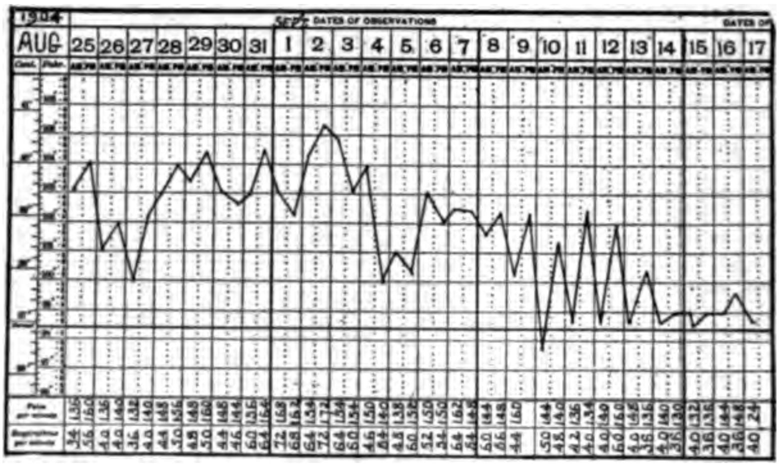

Fig. 192.—Temperature Chart from a Case of Measles Complicated by Broncho-pneumonia. Seen during my service at the Riverside Hospital, New York City. (Original.)

Broncho-pneumonia.—This is the most frequent and the most fatal complication of measles. Houl[1] found it in one-fifth of all of his cases. In the Nursery and Child's Hospital of New York, Holt observed it in 40 per cent. of all cases. This infection can invariably be traced to the presence of various organisms of which the pneumococcus of Friedländer, and the micrococcus of Fränkel play a conspicuous rôle.

There is marked retraction of the chest in addition to the usual signs of pneumonia. The physical examination shows widely disseminated subcrepitant râles which soon give way to definite resonance, bronchial breathing, and fine crepitations. In young children its onset is acute, with rapid pulmonary congestion, and it usually terminates fatally within two or three days. When the condition extends over a more subacute course, it may lead to caseous pneumonia or pulmonary tuberculosis.

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[1] Wien. klin. Rund., 1897, vol. xi, p. 833.

Case I. Kate A., aged twenty-one months. Child was admitted to the Riverside Hospital August 25, 1904, in fairly good condition, with temperature 104° F., pulse 136, respiration 36. Sick since August 22d. Child had a moderately severe cough on admission. On August 26th cough increased in severity, breathing short, rapid and labored.

Physical examination showed only a few coarse râles at upper part of chest posteriorly, with slight dullness, but no bronchial breathing.

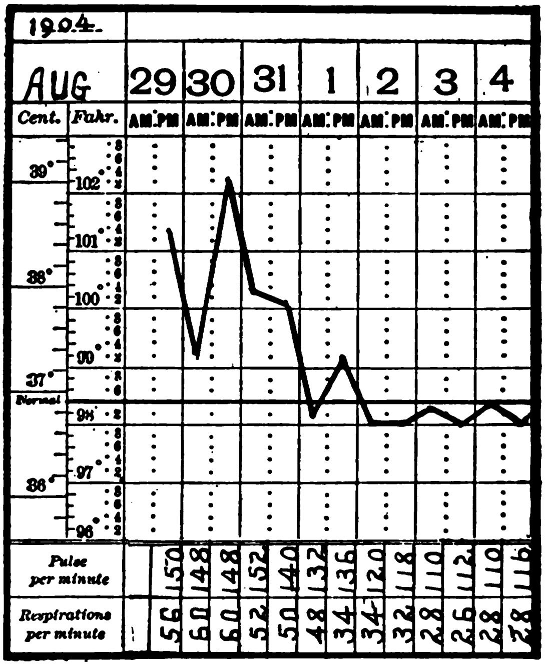

Fig. 193.—Temperature Chart from a Case of Measles Complicated by Broncho-pneumonia. Seen during my service at the Riverside Hospital, New York City. (Original.)[1]

Well-marked dullness over the right base posteriorly, with bronchial voice and breathing. Left base behind gave slight dullness with many coarse râles. No bronchial breathing.

On August 28th, pleuritic friction sounds over right base posteriorly.

On August 31st, percussion gave marked dullness, almost flatness over this area, extending slightly above the inferior angle of right scapula. Over this area, marked bronchial voice and breathing.

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[1] I am indebted to Drs. Alfred Helgeson, Bruno Horwicz, and Wm. Ogden Lord for clinical histories, charts, and statistics.

On September 1st, bloody serum obtained upon aspiration.

On September 3d, serum obtained by aspiration, bloody with slight turbidity. General condition continued the same up to September 9th. On this day a drop in the temperature from 102° to 97.6° F. occurred. Child appeared brighter, slept well and has a good appetite.

During the last two days, fluctuations in temperature have occurred, ranging from 98° to 101° F. (evening rise).

This fluctuation of temperature continued up to September 14th. On this date there was an evening rise to 99° F. only, and since then, the highest rise has been $99^3/_5$° F. The pulse has improved much in quality. Respirations have gradually diminished in frequency. The child was aspirated on the 13th, but no pus or serum was obtained. Dullness was diminished over right base posteriorly and bronchial breathing was present only over a small area at base of right lung. Child at present sits up, has good appetite, and sleeps well.

Case II. L. Z., age eight months. Admitted to the Riverside Hospital on August 29th, having been ill since the 21st. Upon admission showed characteristic symptoms of broncho-pneumonia with temperature 101.4° F., pulse, 150; respiration, 56. Upon examination, dullness was present over right base behind, with bronchial voice and breathing. Many coarse râles were heard over both lungs behind as well as in front. There was a pleuritic friction sound over the consolidated area. No signs of effusion. Child improved rapidly, and upon September 3d, the bronchial breathing had disappeared and only signs were coarse râles over both bases behind. Recovery.

Otitis Complicating Measles.[1]—A very frequent sequela is acute otitis. If, after several days of apparent convalescence the child is irritable, restless at night and feverish, and cries continuously, a careful examination of the ears should be made. As a rule our attention is first directed to this condition after the cavity of the middle ear is filled with the discharge, and there is a spontaneous discharge of pus.

Siegfried Weiss[2] calls attention to the method of prophylaxis in this condition. He believes that with good care we can prevent and abort this complication. Tobeitz believes that in measles we are dealing with a primary enanthematous disease of the middle ear.

In a post-mortem study of 95 cases, pathological changes affecting the ear showed the destructive tendency due to the disease itself.

Tobeitz found that 86 per cent. of fatal cases of measles showed ear complications. Bezold in a study of 18 fatal cases of measles noted ear disease in 17, or about 95 per cent. Weiss studied 112 cases in which there were ear complications, and after careful prophylactic treatment he had only 6.6 per cent. of ear complications. Weiss's prophylactic method consists in applying a 1 per cent. yellow precipitate ointment on a sterile swab to the nostrils. By this method he removes the dried and fluid secretions from the nose mechanically. Another method of Weiss' consists in allowing 1 or 2 drops of $^1/_2$ per cent. nitrate of silver solution to drop into the nostril. In this manner he believes we can destroy the specific infectious material. Hayek has long advocated this method in the treatment of chronic rhinitis in children. In using the salve or the silver nitrate solution Weiss found that if it was applied three or four times a day, the percentage of complications was greatly reduced.

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[1] Read chapter on "Otitis."

[2] Wiener Medicinische Wochenschrift, No. 52, 1900.

TABLE NO. 60.—*Measles Statistics Showing Ear Complications, Riverside Hospital.*

1904.	Number of Cases.	Measles and Otitis.
January	31	6
February	74	11
March	127	10
April	101	14
Total	333	41

Empyema.—Empyema is occasionally met with during the course of measles. As there seems to be a decided tendency to suppurative formations, it is well to inspect the thorax and be sure that we can exclude empyema. This should be borne in mind if cough exists associated with fever. I have seen empyema complicating measles in about 2 per cent. of my cases. When the exploratory puncture shows pus the treatment is the same as that given in the chapter on "Empyema."

The Eyes.—Severe inflammatory and destructive changes are met with in measles. Abscesses of the conjunctiva or keratitis, resulting in ulceration of the cornea, are sometimes seen. In other cases it may extend to the antrum or, if the mastoid cells are involved, it can result in meningitis, cerebral abscess, or pyæmia. In very young children the petromastoid suture, which at this time is still patent, allows free access of pus into the cranial cavity from the middle ear. Not infrequently this condition leads to actual deafness.

Immunity.—One attack of measles usually confers immunity for life. Second attacks are, however, possible, and third attacks have also been reported as instances of rare conditions.

Measles is rarely seen in infants under 1 year. Mayr observed that of 10 nurslings exposed to measles, only one contracted the disease. I have rarely met with infectious diseases in healthy breast-fed infants. ***There seems to be some antitoxic property conveyed to the nursing infant through the serum contained in the breast-milk of its mother.***

At the Riverside Hospital I have seen nursing infants, in the measles wards, that had been exposed and did not contract the disease.

Immunity can be conveyed by a mother who has had measles, through her milk, but how long this immunity lasts remains still to be investigated.

Diagnosis.—An ordinary cold with coryza, as met with in influenza, is sometimes confusing. Mistakes will occur unless we are careful to note *the enanthem* which is absent in influenza. The rise of temperature is less marked in influenza than in measles.

The diazo reaction is sometimes observed in cases of measles. By its presence we cannot, however, diagnose measles.

Drug Eruptions.—Some eruptions resembling measles are caused by quinine and antipyrin. The internal use of chloral is sometimes followed by an eruption. Cubebs and copaiba give an eruption simulating measles.[1]

Bites of insects, especially bedbugs, fleas, and mosquitoes, sometimes produce an eruption which resembles measles. As there is no febrile disturbance or any enanthem the differential diagnosis is easily made. The injection of antitoxin and antistreptococcic serum sometimes produces an eruption which is morbilliform in character.

Course.—As a rule three weeks should elapse before a case of measles is permitted to return to healthy children. The quarantine should be extended over this length of time. This applies to institutions as well as to private families. Isolation should be continued if a case suffers from any complication associated with the primary measles. In other words, measles otitis, measles vaginitis, or any other complication, requires isolation.

Prognosis.—When reasonable care is taken, then this is one of the least fatal of infectious diseases. The vital point consists in guarding the patient against unnecessary exposures and attending to all functional disturbances. With proper attention to the diet and symptomatic treatment when necessary, there should be little or no trouble experienced. If the fever declines after the full development of the exanthem, the prognosis is good.

If croup and diphtheria complicate measles, then the prognosis is always grave. Broncho-pneumonia is usually fatal in one-third to one-half of all cases. Sometimes a broncho-pneumonia will be followed by tuberculosis. Diarrhœa with or without bloody stools should always be looked upon as a serious complication.

Treatment.—In the treatment of measles certain rules should invariably be followed:—

(*a*) Hygienic.
(*b*) Dietetic.
(*c*) Medicinal.

Hygienic Treatment.—The temperature of the room should always be uniform, no less than 68° F. and never more than 74° F. Modern clinicians assert that the former method in vogue, of bundling up the body and keeping the air of the room very hot, produces a certain amount of susceptibility to respiratory diseases. In this manner we invite complications rather than prevent them. The body of the child may be sponged with tepid or warm water, and fresh linen can be given every day.

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[1] P. A. Morrow: "Drug Eruptions," New York, 1887.

Overheated rooms cause more trouble during treatment of respiratory affections than any other factor.

Light of the Room.—Careful observers have noted that the light in the room has absolutely nothing to do with the eyes. Owing to the inflammatory state of the eyes, there is a normal photophobic condition. No one would think of putting a child in the beginning of measles in a glaring sunlight, but rather with its back to the light. At the measles pavilion in Berlin, under the supervision of Professor Baginsky, the hygienic conditions are perfect. Plenty of fresh air is admitted and also light. I have frequently had the pleasure of making rounds in the wards of this pavilion with Professor Baginsky, and noted the above-named conditions. We do not darken the windows in the measles wards at the Riverside Hospital of New York City, and the hygienic conditions regarding fresh air and fresh linen have been excellent during my term of service there.

Dietetic Treatment.—We must not forget that in all febrile conditions the digestive function is impaired. The diet must be so regulated that there is proper assimilation. If subnormal conditions prevail, we must order a smaller quantity of food and allow a longer interval between feedings.

A baby receiving pure milk should receive one-half milk and one-half oatmeal water, and if it has been fed every three hours when in good health, then it is wise to try to feed every four or five hours during the febrile stage of measles. An important point to remember is that liquids are an important part of the treatment. Soups, acidulated waters, and carbonated waters are grateful and indicated. Orangeade and lemonade are grateful, especially to relieve thirst. If the child is older and has been fed on solid food when in health, then all solids should be discontinued and liquid food substituted. Water should be given in large quantities.

Medicinal Treatment.—If the eruption is tardy in appearing then a mustard foot-bath, using a tablespoonful of mustard in a foot-tub of warm water, 100° F., and adding warm water gradually until the temperature is about 105° F., will frequently hasten the appearance of the rash. This is as hot as the child can stand it for a few minutes. If there is a general depression of the vital powers, then give *spir. mindererus,* a teaspoonful every hour, until perspiration is active. This will also frequently hasten the appearance of the rash. One of my favorite drugs is tincture of aconite, in 1-drop doses, if the fever is very high.

Pneumonia requires the same care and treatment as if it were not a complication or a sequela to this disease. (See chapter on "Pneumonia.")

Diphtheria calls for the same treatment as if it was not associated with measles.

Immunity from Diphtheria.—An injection of 300 to 500 antitoxin units will confer immunity from diphtheria in a case of measles.

The urine must be frequently examined for a possible nephritis and treated accordingly.

Convulsions frequently usher in the disease and should be very carefully attended by rest, sinapisms, enemata of chloral, and possibly a few leeches to the neck.

Epistaxis is usually an early but passing symptom, but if persistent, it should be treated on general principles and the cause looked into. The congestion during an attack of measles has frequently excited an otherwise quiet polypus to activity and caused alarming hæmorrhages.

For the relief of the cough I usually give:—

℞ Ammon. bromid	℈ij		3.00
Syr. liquorit	℥j	or	25.00
Decoct. althæ	ad ℥ij		50.00

M. Teaspoonful every hour, for a child 1 year old, until relieved.

For a child 2 years old:—

℞ Codeine	2 grains
Sacch. alb.	1 ½ drachms

M. Divide in chart No. X. Sig.: One powder every two hours until cough is relieved.

Summary of Treatment.—Give the child excellent hygiene—fresh air—protect the body with clean linen. Guard against draughts. Isolate the patient.

Do not give solid food; liquid diet only, soups, broths, milk, buttermilk if tolerated, etc.

Do not give useless drugs. Treat symptoms, such as hyperpyrexia, constipation, suppression of urine, and assist the emunctories. The greatest part of the treatment is the management of convalescence—codliver-oil, iron, Fellows' compound syrup of hypophosphites, malt preparations, cereals, butter, eggs, and cream; meat sparingly; all green vegetables; oranges and lemons.

Health can be restored by cautious management during the stage of convalescence. When cough remains and symptoms point to the beginning of tuberculosis, we must not lose sight of the fact that more can be accomplished by climatic treatment—out of doors, in the country—than by indoor treatment. Complete change of air, to a more even climate like Denver, Colo., New Mexico, or Florida, will frequently restore the lungs to their normal condition.

CHAPTER IX.

SCARLET FEVER (SCARLATINA).

SCARLET FEVER is an acute infectious, specific and contagious disease. This disease is usually ushered in by vomiting and sore throat, accompanied by fever. If the child is old enough it will complain of headaches.

The pulse-rate will be accelerated, and there is usually on the second day a distinct eruption visible. This disease presents several types: the mildest form, known as *scarlatina simplex* or the benign form, and the most malignant type, *scarlatina maligna,* called by the French "foudroyante."

There are a great many varieties between the two types just mentioned, so that any sharp differentiation is quite impossible.

Of the many varieties, those most frequently met with are: First, mild; second, septic, and occasionally the hæmorrhagic type is seen.

Etiology.—It has been established beyond doubt that disease germs even though they might exist in desquamated cuticle die when exposed to the air. The theory of the transmission of scarlet fever by such means is wrong. That the disease is transmitted through the air has not been established. Personal contact is necessary.

Infection by Contact.—In Paris, the Pasteur Hospital has demonstrated that infection in hospitals can be minimized by avoiding contact. Grancher, in Paris, employed wire screens around the beds to impress the nurses of the necessity for guarding against infection by contact.

Scarlet Fever and Milk.—Hall,[1] in a very interesting article, found, after an extensive review of the literature, that, "while scarlet fever occurs in epidemic form in those countries where cows' milk forms a staple article of food, especially among children, it does not occur in countries where cows' milk is not used as a food, or where children are raised on mother's milk only." This is true of Japan, where cows' milk is not used and domestic animals are scarce, and it is true in India, also, where, though cows' milk is used, the children are nursed by their mothers until they are 3 or 4 or even 6 years of age.

While this immunity from scarlet fever, together with the absence of cows' milk as an article of food, may be simply a coincidence otherwise explainable, does it not suggest the possibility of infection through the gastro-intestinal tract as perhaps the chief source?

Climate.—Epidemics are more common in America in the fall and winter than in the summer months, although I have seen malignant cases both in hospital and private practice just as bad in midsummer as in midwinter. We know by clinical experience that the poison of scarlet fever is less volatile than that of measles, and is not transmitted any great distance through the atmosphere (Hall).

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[1] H. O. Hall: New York Medical Record, November 11, 1899, p. 698.

TABLE No. 61.—*Scarlet Fever Cases Occurring in Children Under 18 Years. Willard Parker Hospital.*

		Grand Total.	Under 1 Year.	1 to 2 Years.	2 to 3 Years.	3 to 4 Years.	4 to 5 Years.	5 to 6 Years.	6 to 7 Years.	7 to 8 Years.	8 to 10 Years.	10 to 12 Years.	12 to 15 Years.	15 to 18 Years.
1910	Male	870	7	39	80	105	76	90	87	87	113	65	69	52
	Female	914	11	40	82	93	81	109	92	80	126	84	78	38
	Total	1784	18	79	162	198	157	199	179	167	239	149	147	90
1911	Male	705	9	28	60	65	72	84	90	45	69	104	38	41
	Female	947	9	58	75	100	90	110	99	90	160	37	59	60
	Total	1652	18	86	135	165	162	194	189	135	229	141	97	101

Age.—The greater number of cases occur between the ages of 5 and 10: next in frequency, 2 to 5. Then the frequency gradually diminishes.

Stage of Incubation. Authorities differ as to the length of time that usually elapses between the exposure to the disease and the appearance of symptoms. The usual rule is from a few days to a week, although exceptions will extend the time to several days longer.

Eichhorst and von Leube give it from four to seven days. Individual susceptibility plays an important part in scarlet fever as well, as we have seen in other diseases.

Henoch maintains that we cannot form an idea of the severity or mildness of an attack by the early symptoms.

TABLE No. 62. *Statistics of Cases of Scarlet Fever Treated in the Riverside Hospital, New York City.*

Year.	Number of Cases.	Deaths.	Mortality Per cent.
1903	835	76	9.1
1904, Jan. to Oct.	718	46	6.4

Bacteriology. The distinct specific cause of scarlet fever is unknown, in spite of immense scientific work. A specific micro-organism first described by Class is a non-capsulated diplococcus, appearing occasionally in

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[1] New York Medical Record, September, 1899, p. 330.

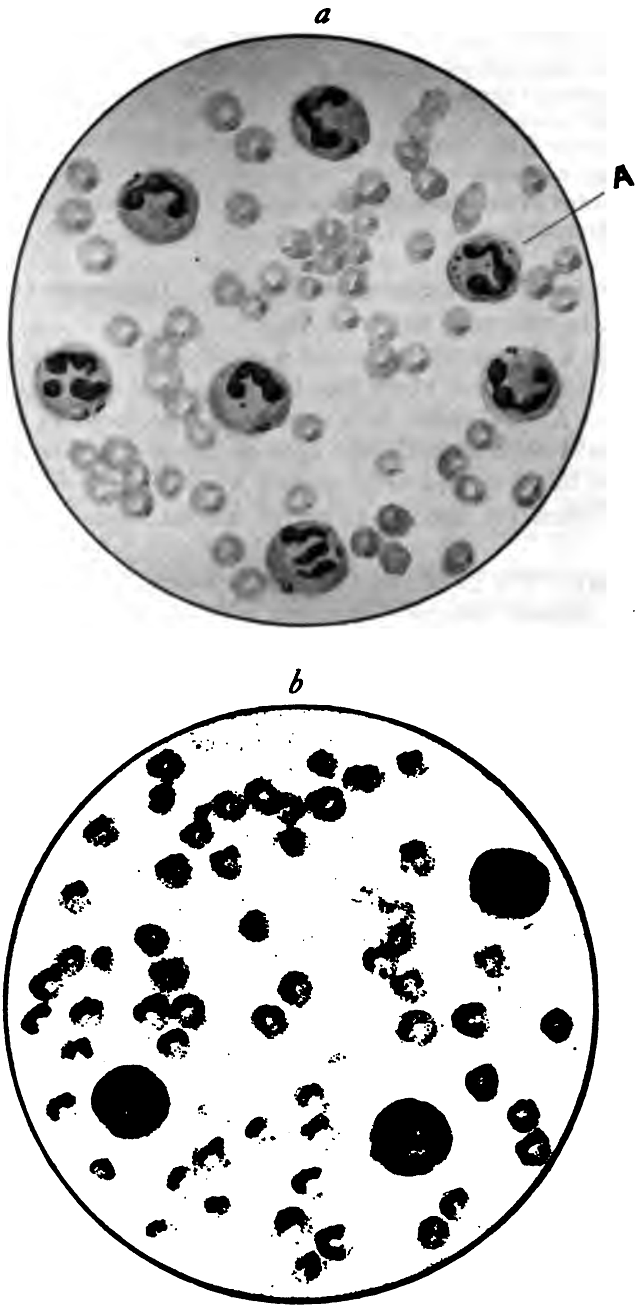

Fig. 194.—*a*, "Inclusion Bodies," case of Scarlet Fever. *A*, Neutrophile granules. *b*, "Inclusion Bodies," case of Scarlet Fever following extensive burns of the body. (*Kolmer.*)

TABLE No. 63.—*Scarlet Fever Cases Treated at Willard Parker Hospital.*

	1910	1911	1912
Number of cases treated	2302	1984	2127
Total number of deaths	247	211	179
Percentage mortality	10.7	10.6	08.41
Total number dying within 24 hours	19		
Percentage mortality	0.8		
Total number dying within 48 hours	36	38	27
Percentage mortality	01.5	01.9	01.2

streptococcic form, polymorphous in character. It is constantly found in the pharynx in scarlatinal angina.

Baginsky and Sommerfeld[1] found a *streptodiplococcus* in the pharynx and blood in scarlet fever which they believe to be the etiological factor in that disease. As yet scarlet fever cannot be reproduced in animals, and hence this microbe must be looked upon as the *probable causative factor.* Owing to the immense amount of research work being done, the day is not far distant when the specific factor of all infectious diseases will be discovered.

Pathology.—The gross and histological lesions found post-mortem in scarlet fever depend essentially upon two processes: first, the action of the scarlatinal toxin, associated with the changes seen in any acute febrile disease; and, secondly, they may occur as a result of a mixed infection due to entrance into the organism of the streptococcus pyogenes, the staphylococcus pyogenes aureus or albus, the pneumococcus, and, rarely, other micro-organisms. So long as the specific agent concerned in the scarlatinal infection remains obscure, it must be impossible—in many instances at least—to determine, in a given case, which of these two elements is the predominant one. In cases succumbing early in their course to the intensity of the poison, before the development of secondary infections, we must assume the changes present to be due to the specific scarlatinal virus, while in those which prove fatal later, associated with grave throat lesions, streptococcic angina, etc., the possibility of an added etiological element in the lesions present after death must be admitted (Corlett).

The Blood.—The diagnostic importance of inclusion bodies in scarlet fever has been confirmed by many observers. A true scarlet fever can frequently be determined by the presence or absence of the inclusion bodies. Thus, the absence of the inclusion bodies means serum exanthem and not scarlet fever.

Inclusion Bodies.—Inclusion bodies were described by Döhle in 1911. These bodies are found within the cytoplasm of the polymorphonuclear leucocytes. Since then Kretschmer, in Berlin, and Nicholl and Williams, in New York, have not only confirmed these findings, but lay stress on the diagnostic value of these bodies in scarlet fever. These bodies occur early in the disease, usually during the first five days of the infection. A simple blood smear on a clean slide and stained by Giemsa or Wright and Jenner method will bring them out. Kolmer reports 30 cases of serum sickness showing urticarial rashes ten days after admission to the Philadelphia Hospital; not one showed the presence of inclusion bodies. Twelve cases of measles were examined and all were negative; 1 case of rötheln, negative. Of eleven cases of erysipelas examined inclusion bodies were present in 7. Inclusion bodies seem to be present not only in scarlet fever, but also in other streptococcus infections. In diphtheria inclusion bodies are frequently noted. As a rule, in the early stages of a rash following an injection of antitoxin the absence of the inclusion bodies speaks in favor of serum exanthem and against scarlet fever.

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[1] Berlin. klin. Woch., No. 22, 1900, p. 588.

Bowie[1] reports 167 cases with a total number of 714 counts. Of these, 77 were differential to determine the relative percentage of the three main varieties of leucocytes. The following is the summary of his conclusions:—

1. Practically all cases of scarlet fever show leucocytosis.

2. The leucocytosis begins in the incubation period, very shortly after infection; reaches its maximum at or shortly after the height or severity of the disease, and then gradually sinks to normal.

3. In simple, uncomplicated cases the maximum is reached during the first week, and the normal generally some time during the first three weeks.

4. The more severe the case the higher is the leucocytosis, and the longer it lasts; the milder the case the slighter the leucocytosis, and the shorter time it lasts.

5. A favorable case of any variety of the disease has always a higher leucocytosis than an unfavorable one of the same variety.

6. The temperature has no effect on the leucocytosis.

7. The polymorphonuclear leucocytes are increased relatively and absolutely at first, and then fall to the normal, the lymphocytes acting inversely to this. This cycle of events occurs in simple cases within three weeks.

8. Eosinophiles are diminished at the onset of the fever. They increase rapidly in simple favorable cases till the height of the disease is past, then diminish, and finally reach the normal some time after the sum total leucocytosis has disappeared—in short, when the poison has all been eliminated.

9. The more severe the case the longer are the eosinophiles subnormal before they rise again. In fatal cases they never rise, but sink rapidly toward zero.

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[1] Reported in Berlin. klin. Wochenschrift. (No. 31, 1897.)

10. The leucocytes, in complications, go through a cycle of events similar in all respects to that of the primary fever as regards both sum total and differential leucocytosis, and the same laws govern the behavior of the leucocytes in both cases.

In regard to the diagnosis of scarlet fever, the simple counting of the leucocytes gives little aid. A differential count, however, may be of aid, for scarlet fever is one of the few acute infectious diseases where one finds an increase in the eosinophiles early in the disease and the persistence of that increase for some time.

With regard to prognosis, the examination of the leucocytes seems likely to be of some practical value. In scarlatina simplex, if the case be severe, and the leucocytosis be high and rising, one may predict a favorable course; and conversely, if it be low and stationary, one may expect a tedious case. Regarding the differential count, if the eosinophiles show a relative increase, the augury is good; if they are normal or subnormal after the first day or two, then the case will in all probability be a severe one. Furthermore, as long as a relative increase of eosinophiles is present one cannot be sure that some complication will not ensue; whereas, if the eosinophiles have come down to normal in the usual way, one may be free from anxiety in this respect.

Symptoms. The onset is usually very sudden. In young children the attack is preceded by a convulsion. Vomiting is an early symptom.

Tongue. The tongue has a whitish fur and the papillæ will be found elevated and very red. It has the so-called "strawberry" appearance (see Plate XXVIII). The throat, especially the tonsils, will be found intensely congested and dry. Sometimes a severe diarrhœa is the first symptom. The pulse is full and rapid, from 120 to 140 beats per minute. The temperature on the first or second day is about 102° F., rarely higher.

Glands. Enlarged inguinal glands are a characteristic feature of this disease. The submaxillary lymphatic glands at the angle of the jaw are swollen and tender on palpation. The mucous membrane of the mouth is reddened. The pharynx, tonsils, and the uvula are injected. Monti[1] calls attention to an enanthem in scarlet fever which is seen late on the first day or early on the second. It is a diffused, mottled reddening, which begins upon the uvula, spreads quickly over the hard and soft palate, covering the pillars of the fauces, and finally the mucous membrane of the cheeks.

The Urine. There is febrile albuminuria present, which disappears as the temperature declines. The urine is scanty and high colored.

The Rash. This appears usually within the first twenty-four hours. It is first seen upon the neck and chest, less often upon the small of the back. It is a bright scarlet pin point flush, and occupies the sites of the hair follicles. The rash extends from above downward, spreading in a

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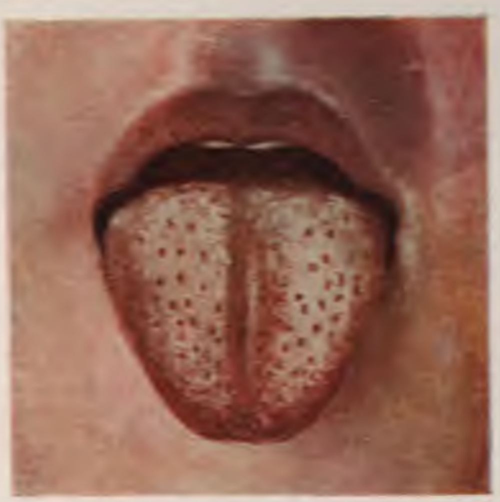
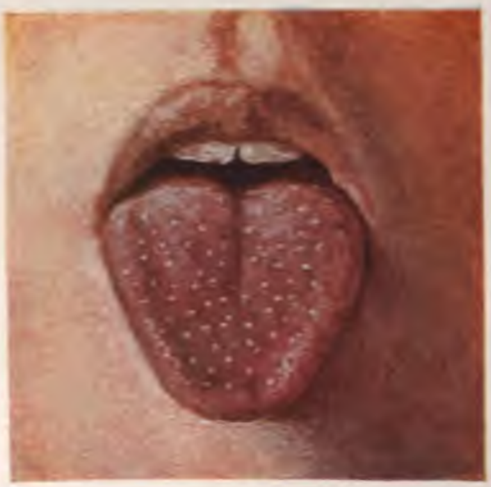
[1] Jahrb. f. Kindh., vol. vii, p. 227.

PLATE XXVIII



Strawberry Tongue in Scarlet Fever. Painted from a case in the Riverside Hospital. The body rash is shown in the Frontispiece. (Original.)



Beefy Tongue in Scarlet Fever. The tongue has a glazed appearance. The papillæ are enlarged. This type is usually seen when desquamation begins, after the rash has faded. Painted at the bedside from a case in the Riverside Hospital. (Original.)

few hours to the arms; usually in twenty-four hours it reaches the trunk, legs, and abdomen. (Study frontispiece.) *A point to note* is that in contrast to measles and smallpox it is much less marked upon the face and cheeks. The immediate neighborhood of the nose and mouth remains free from the eruption and has a peculiar pallor, a marked contrast to the parts affected by the eruption. The dorsal surfaces of the hands and feet show the eruption. The palmar and plantar surfaces, though frequently injected, do not usually show the true punctate scarlatina rash.

The rash shows great variations. While it may show large or small, faintly scarlet colored patches lasting but a short time, the opposite more frequently occurs. When it is diffuse it may be of an intense scarlet or almost purple color. (See frontispiece.) It frequently shows a tendency to stain the tissues; and minute hæmorrhages may occur with the formation of petechiæ.

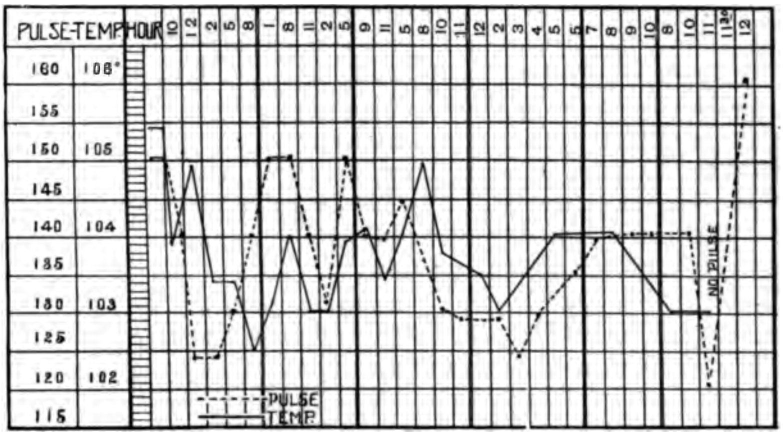


Fig. 195.—Septic Scarlet Fever with Myocarditis, Suppurative Arthritis, Double Purulent Otitis, General Pyæmia. Case seen in consultation in private practice. Child 4 years old. (Original.)

Septic Scarlet Fever.—This type is most commonly met with in children. The symptoms are of a more severe type. There is high and continued fever, with involvement of the pharynx and tonsils. Prostration is the vital symptom, showing the evidence of severe infection. There are marked cerebral symptoms, such as extreme restlessness, convulsions, or mild delirium. In this type we usually have persistent vomiting associated with general apathy. The fever rises suddenly to 105° F., or 40.5° C., or higher. The pulse becomes very small and rapid, from 140 to 160 per minute, although at times 200 per minute. The thirst is extreme, the mouth being dry and gums parched. The throat, especially the tonsil, is deeply injected and frequently has scattered foci of exudate on the surfaces. The urine is concentrated, and invariably contains albumin.

Hæmorrhagic.—This is the most malignant form and is very rare. The disease is very abrupt in its onset. The temperature reaches 105° to 107° F., and sometimes higher, within the first few hours.

The pulse is greatly accelerated and is weak and intermittent. The cheeks and lips are blanched and may show cyanosis very early. The urine is scanty, high-colored, and albuminous, or may be completely suppressed. There are marked cerebral disturbances, such as convulsions and active delirium. Frequently we have marked dyspnœa, the respiratory rhythm being short and quick, due usually not to any change in the lungs at this time, but probably to irritation of the respiratory centers, according to Ausset. Ataxic and adynamic forms are characterized by early and profound constitutional depression, due to the effect of the toxin on the nerve centers, the symptoms rapidly assuming a typhoidal type.

In the hæmorrhagic forms the exanthem acquires a dark-purplish hue. Small petechiæ, varying in size from a pin-head to a lentil, appear scattered irregularly over the body. The blood oozes from the gums, the sputum even being tinged with it, while epistaxis may be severe. Blood may be discharged from the bowels or the stools may be tarry in color.

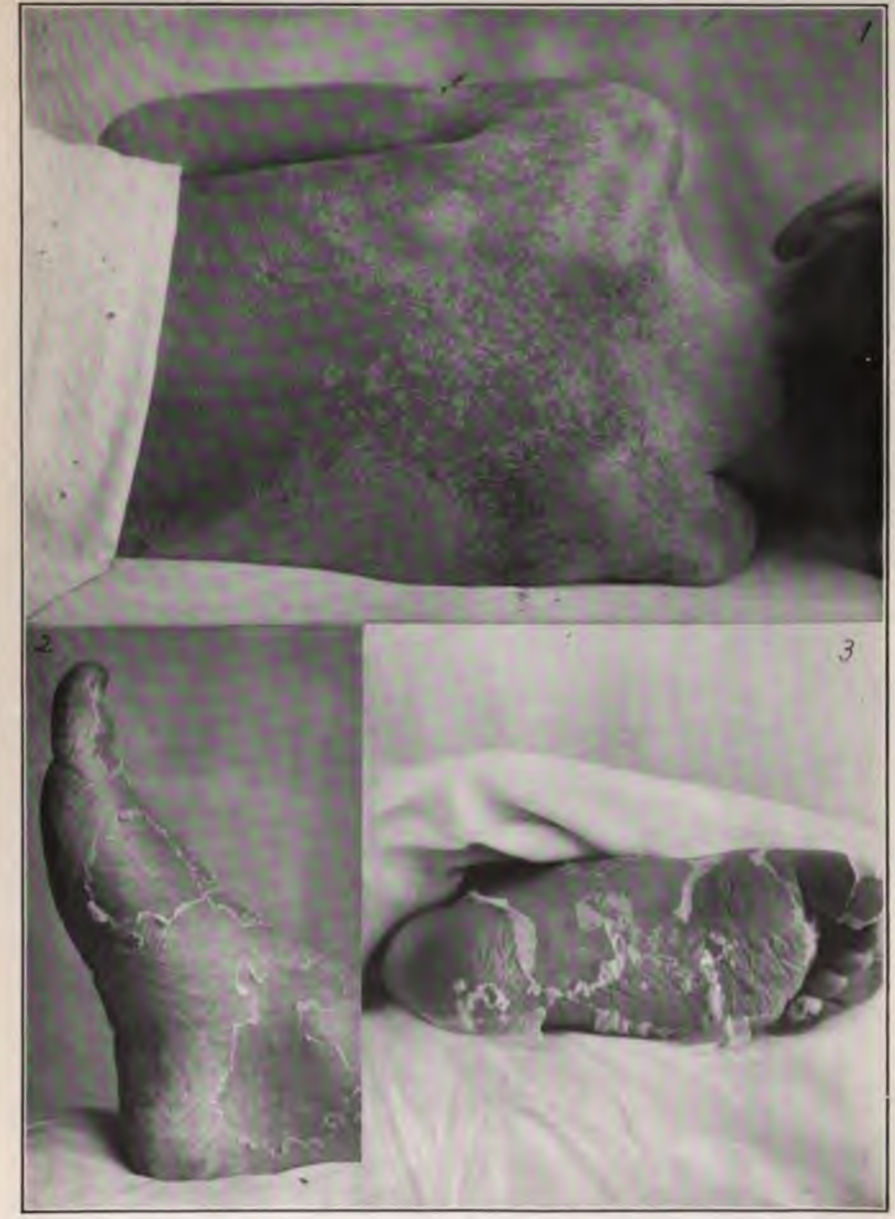
Bleeding is frequently seen from the genito-urinary tract or the urine shows the presence of blood. This form of disease is usually encountered in very feeble infants under 2 years of age and is invariably fatal.

Scarlatina Sine Exanthemata.—Cases frequently occur in which every evidence of scarlet fever exists, but there is no eruption. Henoch states that he believes the eruption is always present and thinks that it is occasionally overlooked. The eruption is frequently of such an evanescent character that it entirely escapes notice, but a subsequent desquamation and nephritis will usually strengthen the diagnosis.

A case of scarlatina sine exanthemata was seen by me in the family of Dr. J. Lurie, of New York City. *A child about 4 years old* had been in apparent health. There was no history of vomiting nor any gastric disturbances. No history of exposure to scarlet fever. When examined by me I found no evidences of scarlet fever. The throat was somewhat congested, but had no patches, nor was there any evidences of necrotic membrane visible in any portion of the throat. The lymphatic glands of the neck were not enlarged. *The urine was very scanty and contained more than 50 per cent. by volume of albumin.* Blood was also present in large quantity. There were also hyaline, epithelial, and granular casts present when a drop was examined under the microscope.

The child's urine was greatly diminished in quantity, hardly a tablespoonful being passed at one sitting. Diuretin and citrate of potash acted very well as diuretics, and later the secretion of urine was normal in both quality and quantity. At times it seemed as though the urine consisted of pure blood. Later the child developed an otitis media, which was preceded by a rise in temperature. The child made a good convalescence and is perfectly *well to-day.*

PLATE XXIX



1. Furfuraceous Desquamation. 2. Circinate Desquamation.
3. Flaky Desquamation.

Scarlatina Papulosa.—Small, slightly elevated papules of a dark-red color develop at the site of the hair follicles. They are more readily detected by the finger than by the eye, and are observed twelve to eighteen hours before the ordinary scarlatinal rash appears.

Scarlatina Variegata.—This form is marked by an extremely irregular distribution of the eruption, frequently associated with the development of well-defined macular areas of an intense red color, situated at the site of the hair follicles, and in many instances simulating the exanthem of measles.

Scarlatina Sine Febre.—Among extremely mild cases of scarlatina instances are frequently seen in which, *after a slight initial rise,* the disease progresses without any subsequent elevation of temperature above 98.5° to 99° F., every other symptom being present, but in a mild degree.

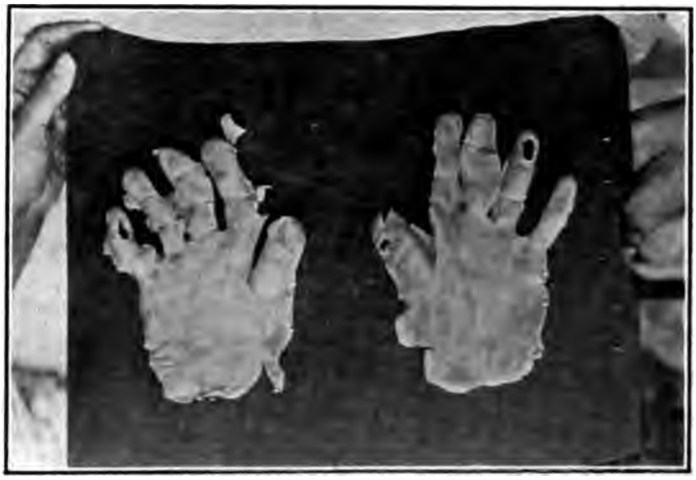


Fig. 196.—Unusually Severe Desquamation. Willard Parker Hospital. (Original.)

Henoch reports 4 cases out of 175 with irregularities of temperature. *Fever of an inverted type* has been reported by Henoch, who noted the temperature curve quite the reverse of normal, in which the temperature was higher in the morning than in the evening.

Scarlatina Sine Angina.—This form of scarlatina has very slight throat symptoms or so insignificant as to appear almost absent. A slight congestion of the throat is visible, and usually a faint enanthem is present early in the disease.

The tonsils are not enlarged, but there is an almost constant ***enlargement of the papillæ*** at the tip and edges of the tongue—an ***important diagnostic aid.***

Desquamation.—The desquamation of the skin in scarlatina begins over those areas on which the rash was first seen, namely, the thorax and neck. Thus, we will frequently find evidences of desquamation on one part, while another part of the body has distinct traces of the rash.

Character of the Desquamation.—On the neck, face, and trunk the epidermis peels off in fine, flaky scales. This is known as *desquamatio furfuracea.* This is similar to the desquamation found in measles. The extremities, about the hands and feet, show the characteristic desquamation. The epidermis peels off or can be stripped off in shreds of varying lengths. This is known as *desquamatio membranacea or lamellosa.*

Duration of Desquamation.—This varies greatly and is influenced by the severity of the infection and the intensity of the eruption. It persists longest where the epidermis is thick, namely, about the hands and feet. At times it will be necessary to soak the hands and feet, then rub them with pumice stone to hasten the removal of the epidermis.

The length of time for complete desquamation may be from six to eight weeks. It may be of a shorter or longer duration. Repeated desquamation is not uncommon, so that we can say there is secondary and, less frequently, tertiary desquamation.

Complications.—*Scarlatina with Other Exanthemata:* Mixed infections are frequently noted. Measles, chicken-pox, or smallpox are met with. Corlett depicts a case of scarlatina with chicken-pox.

Mixed infections have been seen many times during my service in the scarlet fever wards of the Riverside Hospital—scarlet fever and whooping-cough, scarlet fever and measles very often, scarlet fever and diphtheria as well.

The Throat.—Scarlatina is usually seen very early in the pharynx and fauces. This takes place whether we are dealing with a mild or severe infection. We know that certain pathogenic bacteria, such as streptococci, are invariably found during the course of scarlatina.[1]

Many bacteriologists agree that the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus is usually absent, though there are many cases of true diphtheria complicating scarlet fever. Several cases of diphtheritic angina have been seen by me while on service at the scarlet fever wards of the Riverside Hospital. Lemoine found the streptococcus pyogenes in 93 cases out of 117 studied by him. The Klebs-Loeffler bacillus was found in addition in 5 cases of this series, and the bacillus coli communis in 9 cases.

Angina Pseudomembranosa (of Streptococcic Origin).—False membranes upon the tonsils or pharynx are seen in the severe and septic types of this disease. It is simply a necrotic inflammatory deposit. On the second day the mucous membrane of the pharynx is intensely reddened and congested. The tonsils, which are much inflamed and swollen, show scattered.

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[1] See elaborate clinical and bacteriological studies made by **Baginsky and Sommerfeld**, in Archiv für Kinderheilkunde, 1900, and Berlin. klin. Woch., No. 22, **1900**, p. 588.

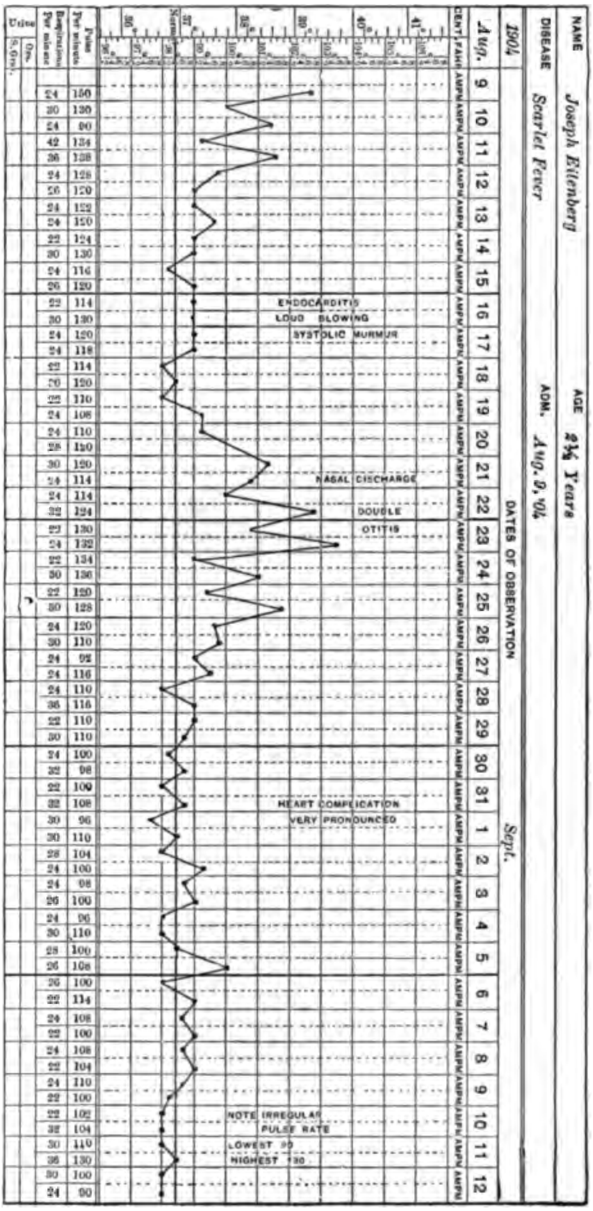

Fig. 197.—Chart showing temperature and complications in a case of scarlet fever. From Author's service at the Riverside Hospital.

irregular patches of gray or grayish-white exudate, completely occluding the tonsillar crypts over a more or less limited surface. One or both tonsils may be affected. In many instances the pharyngeal inflammation from the beginning shows an extreme grade of intensity. This may spread over the posterior pharyngeal wall, the hard palate, and the mucous membrane of the posterior surface of the cheek; also, to the posterior nares and the Eustachian tube, with resulting extension of the inflammatory process to the middle ear. There is a very foul odor to the breath, and usually a thin, acrid secretion from the nostrils, causing excoriation, fissures, and, rarely, rhagades.

The nostrils may be occluded and the mouth held open in an attempt to breathe.

Angina Scarlatina Membranosa (*of True Diphtheritic Origin*).—This should be regarded as a true diphtheritic complication and treated as diphtheria (see chapter on "Diphtheria").

Otitis.—The extension of the infection from the pharynx through the Eustachian tubes has already been mentioned. As a rule, *the younger the child,* the greater the danger of otitis. According to Bader and Guinon, the mild or catarrhal form occurs in 33 per cent. of all cases of scarlet fever, and the purulent form is less common, occurring in 4.5 per cent. of all cases.

Caiger, reporting 4015 cases of scarlet fever, noted ear discharge in 11.05 per cent. In a series of 397 cases observed by me, including severe, malignant, and all complicated varieties, there were 82 middle-ear discharges, 68 purulent and 14 catarrhal.

About 20 per cent. of all cases seen by me had middle-ear trouble. It is important to have the *middle ear examined* when *high fever persists* during an attack of scarlet fever. *Persistent high fever in a case of scarlet fever occurred in my private practice. It was also seen by Dr. J. W. Brannan and by Dr. Dench. After an examination of the middle ear, a thorough incision of the drum membrane liberated pus and relieved the temperature for a time.*

The hand will frequently be carried to the head or ear. The neighboring lymphatic glands are enlarged, palpable, and may be tender. After a few days, unless relieved by incision, the tympanic membrane ruptures spontaneously. The symptoms then usually subside. When, however, the inflammation becomes purulent (*otitis media suppurativa*), then the condition is serious, owing to the possibility of deafness arising.

Empyema of the mastoid antrum,[1] resulting from chronic suppurative otitis media, occurs in a small percentage of cases. With the establishment of a communication between the tympanic cavity and the cells of the mastoid, there is usually a slight decrease in the amount of discharge from the

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[1] Read article on mastoid (chapter on "Otitis"), page 815.

TABLE No. 64.—*Complications in Scarlet Fever. Willard Parker Hospital.*

Year	1910	1911	1912
Number of cases	2302	1984	2127
EYE COMPLICATIONS.			
Conjunctivitis (purulent)	86	68	1
Conjunctivitis (gonorrhœal)	14	13	3
Conjunctivitis (catarrhal)	28	142	84
EAR COMPLICATIONS.			
Mastoiditis (operative)	14	25	
Mastoiditis (non-operative)	8	37	25
Otorrhœa (purulent)	180	194	249
Otorrhœa (diphtheritic)	...	5	14
THROAT COMPLICATIONS.			
Positive throat cultures on admission	358	33	117
Requiring intubation	11	7	74
Intubation cases recovered	8		
Tonsillitis	...	89	74
Regurgitation	...	27	22
Adenitis (cervical)	512	274	120
CARDIAC COMPLICATIONS.			
Endocarditis	32	61	49
Myocarditis	29	41	56
Pericarditis (with effusion)	2	5	1
Pericarditis (fibrinous)	3	4	3
Bradycardia	...	25	16
Irregularity	...	125	369
NEPHRITIC COMPLICATIONS.			
Albuminuria	391	357	281
Nephritis (marked)	53	34	51
Uremic convulsions	11	9	8
GENERAL COMPLICATIONS.			
Arthritis	85	145	148
Delirium	17	95	72
Erysipelas	11	1	11
Pneumonia	34	160	114
Empyema	4	3	4
Measles	86	94	
Typhoid on admission	4	3	1
Antitoxin rashes			
Morbilliform	...	10	21
Scarlatiniform	...	38	15
Urticarial	...	30	45
Erythema multiforme	...	47	27

ear. The temperature rises to 104° F., or higher, and shows a marked fluctuation of a remittent character. There may be rigors. If old enough the child will complain of pain in the mastoid region with tenderness on palpation over the mastoid process.

The pulse becomes rapid and irregular. These symptoms continue from day to day, and unless an operation is performed these cases will end fatally, due to the development of meningitis.

More rarely an inflammatory swelling appears behind the external ear—situated *over the mastoid*—associated with a rise of temperature, local tenderness, with more or less forward projection of the ear, and occasionally local suppuration, with abscess formation, takes place.

Mastoid Infections.—The virulence of the streptococcus and the pneumococcus must always be remembered. In addition to the streptococcus, some cases will show the presence of the staphylococcus. In one of my cases seen recently, we encountered an almost pure culture of bacillus pyocyaneus. This latter condition is extremely rare.

These bacteria always accompany both the severe and mild forms of infection and predominate in the nose and throat. The proximity of the Eustachian tube permits these bacteria to penetrate into the deeper structures and thus reach the mastoid. It is therefore important to have in mind the ease with which a middle-ear disease may begin.

When fever persists, daily inspection of the ear should be made. If the temperature rises and the child shows discomfort and pain, and there is the slightest bulging or redness of the tympanic membrane, no time should be lost, but an incision made.

Many cases of otitis will yield promptly when the drum is incised and pus drainage established. When tenderness exists over the mastoid, an ice-bag or a cold-water coil will afford relief.

After the incision of the tympanic membrane warm saline irrigations, three times a day, are indicated. This will clean away all the discharge, and prevent the incision from closing. When thick, tenacious discharge is present which cannot be washed away, it must be wiped away by means of an applicator mounted with dry absorbent cotton. While some otologists advise plugging the ear with absorbent cotton, I have had better results by allowing free drainage.

A case of this kind occurred in the private practice of Dr. R. W. Reid, of New York City, with whom I saw the case in consultation. The child had a very severe attack of scarlet fever. It was of a septic character. Necrotic membranes could be seen over the pharynx and tonsils. There was persistent fever. The child was decidedly rachitic. The case was complicated with an acute nephritis. The urine was very scant and was loaded with albumin and casts. Later the right ear discharged pus very freely.

When I saw the child there was a superficial swelling *over the mastoid* which pushed the ear forward. The inflammatory condition was local and due either to

periostitis or to a local adenitis, remotely dependent on the middle ear suppuration. An incision made liberated a large quantity of pus. The child died of general septicæmia following toxic nephritis.

Angina Ludovici (Tippet Neck).—This may occur about the fifth day of the disease, though more commonly seen early in the second week of the attack.

The skin is indurated, glossy, and may pit on pressure, though it may give no sense of fluctuation. The process may be limited to the angle of the jaw or involve the entire neck; it may extend downward to the clavicles and upward along the sides of the face and head, rendering the head almost if not wholly rigid. The diffuse cellulitis of the deeper tissues constitutes one of the gravest complications of scarlet fever, proving almost invariably fatal. Death results from a rupture of one of the large vessels, the jugular vein or internal carotid artery, or, as a result of thrombosis or embolism, with fatal meningitis or pyæmia. The greater the toxæmia, the more pronounced the lymphatic enlargement.

The Lymph Glands.—The neighboring glands are enlarged and tender on palpation. The infiltration of the glands may be extreme, and in rare instances an excessive infiltration of the cellular tissue of the neck occurs, which becomes hard and indurated, and occasionally renders the head immovable.

Phlegmonous Inflammation of the Neck—Diffuse Cellulitis.[1]—Schamberg studied the glands in 100 cases of scarlatina. He found the maxillary glands enlarged in 95 per cent. and the submaxillary glands enlarged in 36 per cent. of his cases. The posterior cervical glands were found enlarged in 77 per cent. of the cases. Sometimes the parotid glands are also involved. Frequently the inflammatory condition persists and suppuration occurs, resulting in so-called phlegmonous inflammation. Even when freely incised there is danger of pus burrowing beneath the connective tissue. Sometimes a rapid and diffuse cellulitis with excessive infiltration of the deeper tissues is associated with the suppurative process.

Retropharyngeal abscess occurs occasionally.[2] Bokai found 6 cases out of 664 cases of scarlet fever.

Schamberg, in a study of the lymphatic glands in scarlatina, found the various groups enlarged in the following proportion in 100 cases:—

Inguinal glands	100 per cent.
Axillary	96 per cent.
Maxillary	95 per cent.
Posterior cervical	77 per cent.

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[1] Schamberg: Annals of Gynæcol. and Pediatry, December, 1889, vol. viii, p. 39.

[2] Jahrbuch f. Kinderheilkunde, vol. x, p. 108.

Anterior cervical	44 per cent.
Submaxillary	36 per cent.
Epitrochlear	26 per cent.
Sublingual	25 per cent.

As a result of the analysis of these 100 cases he finds that the maxillary glands commonly attain the largest size, and also most frequently undergo suppuration. In all cases examined on the second and third day of the disease the enlargement of the lymphatic glands was well marked.

Scarlatinal synovitis (so-called scarlatinal rheumatism or pseudorheumatism) is occasionally met with. Ashby[1] met with this condition in 2 per cent. of his cases.

Hodge found synovitis in 117 out of 3000 cases studied, or 3.2 per cent. There are two distinct forms:—

(a) Simple catarrhal or serous synovitis.

(b) Suppurative or purulent arthritis.

The streptococcus pyogenes has been found in both forms in pure culture and combined with other micro-organisms.

This complication occurs more often in children over 5, and is rarely met with in children under 3, according to Holt.

The symptoms met with are: Pains in the affected joints, swelling, which may or may not be marked with slight impairment of motion, some redness, and a slight rise in temperature.

Owing to an effusion of serum, large joints, such as the knee and shoulder, remain swollen many weeks. When suppuration develops in the involved joint, Henoch claims that it is due to emboli, following septicæmia.

The Kidneys.—There are three forms of involvement of the kidneys in scarlatina:—

1. Transient febrile albuminuria and the interstitial catarrhal nephritis.
2. Septic nephritis.
3. Post-scarlatinal nephritis.

Transient albuminuria occurs in three-fourths of all cases of scarlet fever. It does not differ from a "febrile albuminuria" seen in all acute infectious diseases associated with high temperatures. It has no special significance.

Catarrhal nephritis not infrequently occurs in the first week in cases of moderate severity. The urine contains, besides albumin, degenerated epithelial cells, mucous cylindroids, and rarely epithelial or even hyaline casts, occasionally a few red and white corpuscles.

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[1] British Medical Journal, 1883, vol. ii, p. 514.

Clinically, we have slight evidence of œdema. Pathological changes frequently take place without a trace of albumin or without the presence of casts. Such cases have been reported.[1]

Septic Nephritis.—Where the scarlatinal virus causes a general toxæmia, and we have grave throat symptoms accompanied by necrotic deposits on the tonsils and pharynx, there are always swollen glands. Nephritis develops from the intensity of the infection caused mainly by the streptococcus pyogenes. In many instances death occurs before well-defined symptoms of nephritis are made out. In such cases there is no dropsy and uræmic symptoms are absent. In rare instances the urine is normal during the entire attack until a post-mortem shows the existence of nephritis.

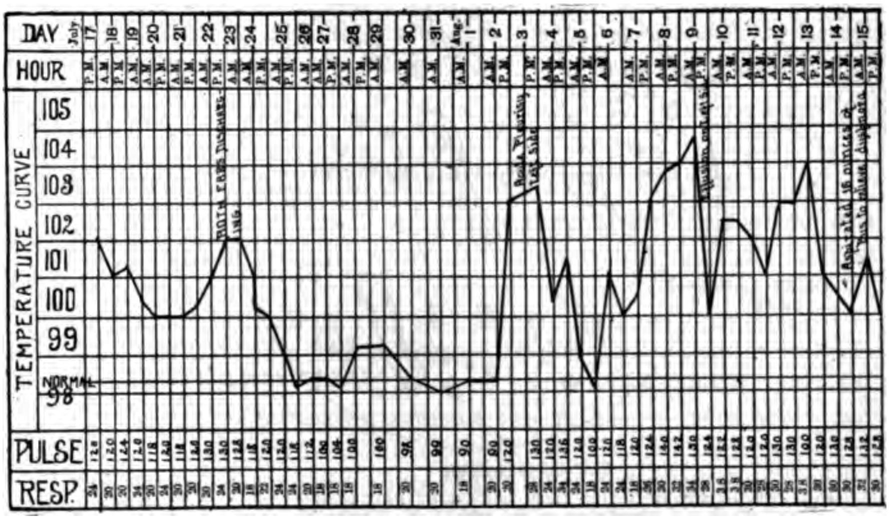

Fig. 198.—Septic Nephritis from Riverside Hospital.

Post-scarlatinal Nephritis.—When the acute symptoms subside and nephritis develops it is called post-scarlatinal nephritis. This nephritis is not always glomerular. Jurgensen's statement that the effect of the inflammatory irritant depends not only upon its virulence (toxicity), but upon the length of time during which it acts upon a given local site, is extremely interesting and important.

The symptoms may be sudden, although if daily examinations of the urine are made a gradual diminution in the quantity secreted in twenty-four hours will be noted.

The child who has seemed apparently well and convalescing becomes pale, is restless and irritable, and if old enough complains of headaches, thirst, and loss of appetite. Constipation may be present. Vomiting is usually an early symptom of nephritis.

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[1] Corlett: "Treatise of Infectious Exanthemata," p. 201.

The earliest symptoms of nephritis are: rise of temperature, occurrence of œdema, however slight, involving particularly the lower eyelids, with distinct puffiness of the eyes. Sometimes the whole face is swollen and bloated. The feet and legs are œdematous, so also the scrotum and penis in the male, and the labia majora in the female. Such œdema may also be seen on the dorsum of the feet and upon the knuckles. There is pitting on pressure.

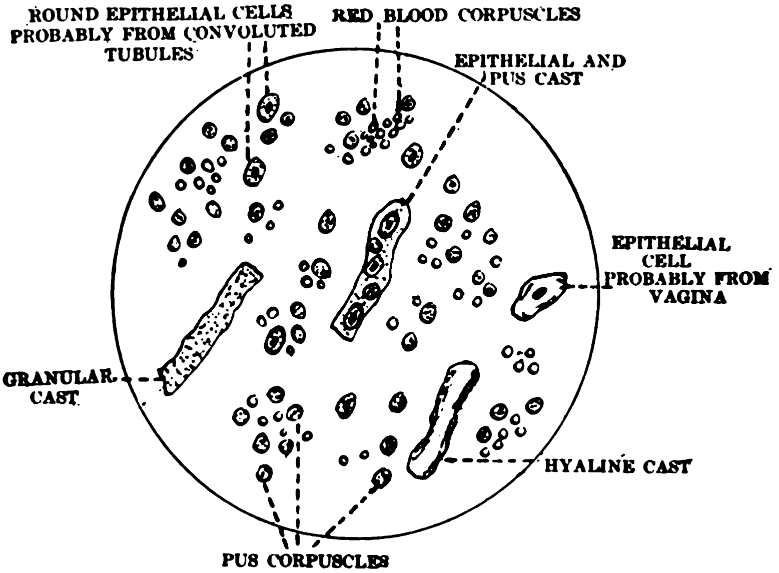
ROUND EPITHELIAL CELLS PROBABLY FROM CONVOLUTED TUBULES
RED BLOOD CORPUSCLES
EPITHELIAL AND PUS CAST
EPITHELIAL CELL PROBABLY FROM VAGINA
GRANULAR CAST
HYALINE CAST
PUS CORPUSCLES

Fig. 199. -Drop of Urine from a Case of Post-scarlatinal Nephritis seen in consultation by the Author. (Original drawing.)

The urine is greatly diminished in quantity, so that several teaspoonfuls only may be passed in twenty-four hours. The reaction is acid. Specific gravity is from 1.006 to 1.065, the latter being rare. The amount of urea is under 2 per cent. Albumin is present from 0.5 to 1 per cent. and higher. The *diazo reaction* is of no value in scarlet fever.

Microscopically.—There may be present hyaline, epithelial, granular and blood casts, fragmented renal epithelium, white and red blood-corpuscles; the latter in varying numbers; uric acid and oxalic acid in crystalline and amorphous form, and more or less granular *débris.*

Cases are seen now and then in which *almost normal conditions* of the urine prevail and still nephritis exists.

Nephritis usually exists a few weeks, although obstinate cases may continue for months and even years.

Great care should be exercised in giving the prognosis in cases of post-scarlatinal nephritis. Uræmia, when occurring during nephritis, is a grave symptom. It is usually preceded by vomiting, stupor, and peculiar twitchings of the facial muscles.

The pulse is slow; the temperature subnormal; the tongue is dry. Sometimes just the reverse exists and there is high fever, very frequent and small pulse; the respirations are short and hurried, and the skin dry.

Convulsions may develop, clonic in character, of varying intensity, involving the face and extremities as a whole. Sometimes only distinct groups of muscles are involved. Cyanosis is marked, complete suppression of urine follows, coma ensues, and usually these cases end fatally.

Anasarca is frequently associated with or subsequent to œdema. We frequently have serous exudations into the serous cavities—pleura, pericardium, or peritoneum. Œdema of the lungs, sometimes œdema of the larynx, results, and is usually fatal. Mayr mentions œdema of the pia mater and ventricles of the brain.

VULVO-VAGINITIS FOLLOWING SCARLET FEVER.

At the Riverside Hospital during the summer of 1903, out of 100 cases of scarlet fever there were 15 cases suffering with vulvo-vaginitis. In these there was a well-marked purulent discharge upon the deeper parts of the vulva and at the vaginal opening, with some redness and irritation. With this there was a distinct rise of temperature and some constitutional disturbance. The cases all yielded promptly to treatment, proving especially amenable to simple astringent solutions rather than to more active germicides.[1]

It is not uncommon to find cases of vulvitis and also vaginitis occurring in the scarlet-fever wards for which there is no adequate explanation.

Vulvo-vaginitis as seen at the Riverside Hospital occurs as a distinct complication to scarlet fever. When it occurs it shows a distinct rise of temperature and also a peculiar constitutional disturbance. When this is contrasted with the symptoms of a catarrhal otitis the similarity of both conditions must be apparent. Not only do we have similar bacteriological findings, but the infection manifests itself in a rise of temperature and general systemic disturbance.

While an occasional case of true gonorrhœal disease may arise in which the Neisser gonococcus will be found, from a large clinical experience in both hospital and private practice, I must say that such cases are very exceptional.

Prognosis.—The prognosis is usually good, although we must bear in mind that if these cases are neglected serious results may follow. Infection may spread from the urethra into the bladder and from the bladder into the ureters, and infect the kidneys.

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[1] Reported to me by Dr. G. L. Nicholas, Resident Physician.

Treatment.—*Hygienic Treatment:* In this disease more than in any other the strictest attention to hygienic rules is demanded. If it is an infant that is so afflicted, the pads should thoroughly cover the vulva and be saturated with a weak solution of bichloride. This pad should be adjusted with the aid of a T-binder. If there is severe itching from excoriation and the child has a tendency to scratch, the hands should be guarded so that the infection cannot be carried from the genital tract to the eyes.

Local Treatment.—Labarraque's solution is a very valuable remedy. It may be used in a 5 per cent. solution. My plan has been to add about 1 ounce of chlorine water to 1 pint of lukewarm water and irrigate morning and evening, noting the effect. If the discharge is not lessened thereby, the injection should be given three times a day.

Astringent solutions, such as sulpho-carbolate of zinc, sulphate of zinc, or sulphate of copper, using 1 grain to the ounce, are useful. When there is intense itching it is a wise plan to instill a 2 per cent. ichthyol-glycerin solution into the vagina after the same has been thoroughly washed with one of the above astringent solutions.

Argyrol, 25 per cent. solution, has been used as an injection several times a day with remarkable success at the Willard Parker Hospital by the resident staff.

The vaccine treatment consists in injections of gonococcus vaccine. These injections are given subcutaneously in doses of 50 million and repeated daily until 1000 million dead bacteria have been injected. There is no specific action following these injections. My experience in some cases has been good, in others disappointing. The discharge was diminished; in some cases it disappeared. The gonococcus, however, persisted.

Constitutional Treatment.—Iron and codliver-oil should be given for several months as a restorative. Persistent local treatment alone is frequently of no avail, and I have noticed that this condition persists until iron, arsenic, or other similar tonics are given internally. The value of nutrition must not be underestimated.

The heart requires careful watching in scarlet fever. Its great susceptibility to the toxin and the danger of paralysis should be remembered. The heart-sounds may lose their normal tone, the first sound becoming soft and valvular, or they may run together. We have in the beginning tachycardia (increased heart's action), later bradycardia (slowed heart's action). These symptoms point to an existing mild myocarditis, according to Romberg.[1]

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[1] Ernst Romberg: "Ueber die Erkrankungen des Herzmuskels bei Typhus Abdominalis, Scharlach, und Diphtherie," Deutsch. Archiv für klin. Med., vol. xlviii, 1891, pp. 369 et seq.

In some cases pericarditis or endocarditis may develop. In the majority of cases the ***endocardium of the heart wall, rather than the valves,*** is involved.

The Lungs.—In addition to the œdema previously mentioned, bronchitis frequently accompanies scarlet fever. Broncho-pneumonia is also frequently noted. Henoch believes bronchial involvement is frequently overlooked. It is no doubt due to accidental transmission of septic material from the throat into the trachea and lungs (so-called Schluck-pneumonie).

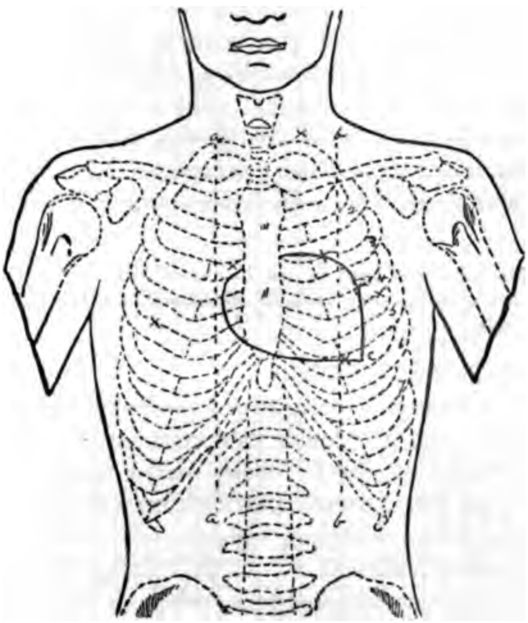

Fig. 200.—The Heart in a Case of Scarlet Fever: *a. a.*, Parasternal line. *b. b.*, Mammary line. *c.*, Apex. *x. x. x. x.*, Location of murmur. From Author's service at the Riverside Hospital.

It may also be the result of direct infection through the blood-vessels, a part of the general sepsis.

Acute croupous pneumonia occurs more frequently in cases in which scarlatinal nephritis exists.

Pleuræ.—Scarlatinal poison seems to affect the serous membranes of the body, so that inflammation of the pleura is by no means rare. It is usually seen during the second week of scarlet fever and is unilateral. When excessive exudation exists we must watch the case carefully, as a fatal termination is by no means rare. Empyema was seen by me as a complication of scarlatina at the Riverside Hospital.

Gastro-intestinal Tract.—Early in the disease, through infection, very young children have stomatitis, ulceration of the mucous membrane of the mouth and cheeks seriously interfering with nutrition. Actual gangrene can occur. See article on "Noma" for the case reported by me.

Diarrhœa and vomiting are frequently noted. Both are early symptoms. Diarrhœa may be:—

(*a*) A simple catarrhal enteritis.

(*b*) Dysentery with bloody, purulent stools.

(*c*) Of a typhoidal character—watery stools with marked tympanites.

Liver.—Enlargement of the liver sometimes occurs. Sometimes atrophy has been noted. Icterus is frequently seen, though it disappears with convalescence. Baginsky maintains that when icterus exists with nephritis it is to be dreaded particularly as predisposing to the danger of uræmia.

General furunculosis or multiple abscesses are occasionally seen. They are usually met with in children with severe systemic infections having low vitality.

A case of this kind was seen by me in consultation with Dr. Glass, of New York City, in which a child, very rachitic, developed multiple abscesses in almost every joint in the body.

Such cases invariably end fatally.

The spleen is frequently enlarged and readily palpable at the margin of the ribs. In some cases it is double its normal size.

Sequelæ.—Tuberculosis rarely follows scarlet fever. Frequently profound anæmia is seen. Occasionally true diphtheria follows, leaving *chronic enlargement of the tonsils* or chronic inflammatory changes in the pharyngeal and nasal mucous membrane.

Forchheimer[1] has reported persistent ozæna as a sequela to scarlet fever. Total deafness or partial loss of hearing is one of the most common sequelæ of this disease.

Chronic nephritis and endocarditis, with resulting permanent lesion of the mitral valves, frequently follow scarlet fever.

Gangrene of Arms and Legs After Scarlet Fever and Other Infectious Diseases.—Eichhorst[2] reports the case of a 4-year-old girl who had an unusually severe attack of scarlet fever. At the end of the third week signs of embolism of the popliteal artery suddenly appeared in the left foot and leg. Gangrene progressed until the line of demarcation was sharply exhibited above the lower half of the leg. Amputation was performed and the child made a good recovery. A thrombus was found in the left popliteal artery 1 centimeter above its bifurcation, extending into both the anterior and posterior tibial arteries for the same distance. The popliteal artery

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[1] Article on "Scarlet Fever" in "Twentieth Century Practice of Medicine," 1898, vol. xiv, p. 80.

[2] Deut. Archiv f. klin. Med., vol. lxx, Nos. 5 and 6.

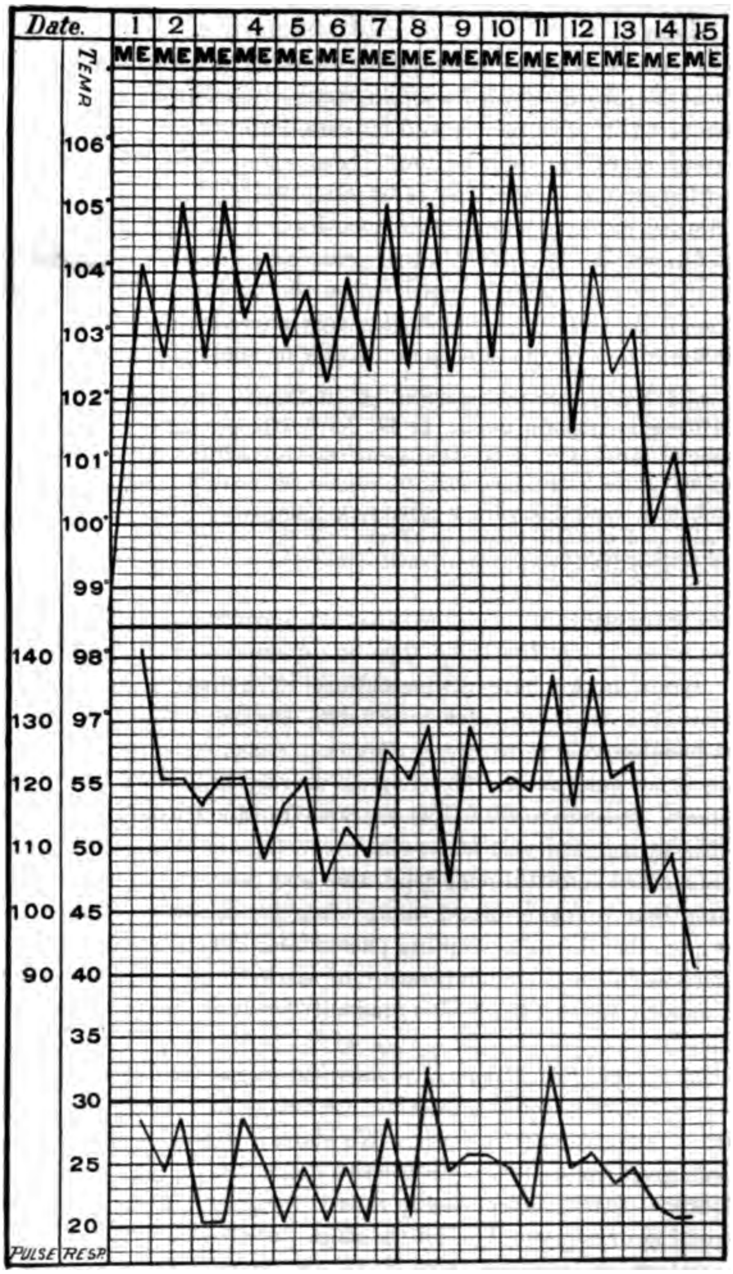

Fig. 201.—Post-operative Scarlatinoid Erythema. (Original.)

showed signs of endarteritis. Pure cultures of the streptococcus pyogenes were found in the pus from a left-sided otitis media and from an abscess on the forehead.

Only two other cases of gangrene following scarlet fever are reported in medical literature. Both lower extremities were involved in these cases, which occurred in boys aged 4 and 9 years, respectively. In all, 166 cases of gangrene occurring in infectious diseases were collected, and, of these, typhus (42), typhoid (40), and influenza (19) furnish the largest number. Five followed measles, 1 diphtheria, and 1 varicella.

Post-operative scarlatina is met with occasionally. Sir James Paget believes the patients were infected before the operation. Hoffa[1] says that these should be termed *post-operative scarlatinoid erythemas*. A case of this kind was seen by me during the winter of 1902.

A child 7 years old was taken to the Manhattan Ear and Eye Hospital and operated for hypertrophied tonsils, by Dr. N. F. Chappell. The case was given the usual aseptic care. Two days later I saw the boy with a well-defined scarlatina covering his whole body. The mother assured me that the boy was not exposed to any infection, excepting while waiting in the dispensary with other patients. The otitis media and necrotic pseudo-membranes on the tonsils, also desquamation, certainly completed the clinical picture and strengthened the diagnosis.

The Diagnosis.—When fever exists accompanied by an inflamed throat and an eruption over the body, then the diagnosis of scarlet fever can be made. Later on we have desquamation. The most characteristic early symptoms of a typical scarlet fever are: Intense redness of the faucial mucous membrane, sore throat, early and persistent vomiting, fever, thirst, and increased pulse-rate. The tongue is very characteristic—strawberry appearance. (See Plate XXVIII.) Sometimes an attack of scarlatina is ushered in by convulsions. Older children complain of an intense headache. There is marked constitutional depression and aching of bones. Von Leube maintains that vomiting occurs more often as an initial symptom in this than in any other disease, excepting pneumonia. There is nothing peculiarly characteristic in the early temperature of scarlet fever. It remains elevated after a sudden rise, and subsides gradually by lysis toward the end of the first week.

Drug Eruptions.—Great care must be taken to learn if a child has received *belladonna, opium, quinine, or antipyrin*. These drugs give an eruption similar to scarlet fever. We should always learn if such drugs have been given before making a positive diagnosis.

Course.—Scarlet fever usually runs its course in about six weeks from the beginning of illness. The febrile stage usually subsides during the first week, rarely later than the tenth day. It is spread by cases in the early stages of the disease. Such children usually complain of headache, nausea, and vomiting. A superficial examination or a careless examination of these "spoiled stomachs" has frequently been the cause of the spread of scarlet fever, children being permitted to go to school. In the pre-exanthematous type the diagnosis is difficult unless the throat is carefully inspected. No child should be permitted to attend school until the last evidence of desquamation has disappeared.

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[1] In von Volkmann's Sammlung klin. Vortrage, No. 292; Chirurgie, No. 90, 1886-1887, p. 2679.

Prognosis.—It is very difficult to determine the outcome of a case, especially at the beginning of scarlet fever. A mild rash may have serious complications and a severe rash may run a very mild course without complications.

Individual susceptibility plays an important part in forming an opinion as to the outcome of any case of scarlet fever. The following symptoms should influence an unfavorable prognosis: continued hyperpyrexia; continued vomiting; delirium or other cerebral symptoms, such as convulsions or stupor; an irregular anomalous or poorly developed rash, if intense, suggests *extreme virulence; an extremely rapid and feeble or irregular pulse.* Great stress should always be laid on the *condition of the heart.* Other complications, such as broncho-pneumonia, or diphtheria, or kidney disease, should be noted as very serious complications.

Treatment.—*Isolation and Care:* In New York City cases of scarlet fever are excluded from school for at least five weeks, or until desquamation is complete and all purulent discharges have ceased. If quarantine is observed by the family, children and others who have had the disease may return to school. If children or other members of the family who have not had scarlet fever are immediately removed to another address, they may return to school at the end of five days if in the mean time they do not develop the disease, but they must present a special school certificate issued by the department. If they continue to reside at home, they cannot return to school until the case of scarlet fever has been officially discharged by the Department of Health.

Hundreds of physicians, students, and nurses observe cases of scarlet fever without coming into direct contact with the patient, and no infection takes place. When, however, physicians and nurses are exposed to the patient's cough or come into direct contact with the salivary secretions from the nose or mouth, then such persons run the risk of infection.

Hygienic Treatment.—The temperature of the room should be from 68° to 72° F. Fresh air must be admitted; hence proper ventilation is imperative. In winter the patient should be well protected from draughts. Sunshine is imperative, although the eyes should be shielded from direct sunlight. A tepid sponge-bath can be given every morning, and also in the evening, especially if there is profuse perspiration. The child's linen should be changed once a day. When the eruption causes itching, the body should surface of the body must be continually rubbed during the bath. The patient when taken out of the bath is placed between hot blankets for one hour, so as to aid diaphoresis. To give the *hot pack* the child should be wrapped in a blanket wrung out of hot water, temperature 100° F., and then covered with a dry blanket, over which is placed a rubber cloth. The blanket can also be covered with oil-silk.

The pulse should be watched during the bath, and the child should at once be removed if signs of weakness appear.

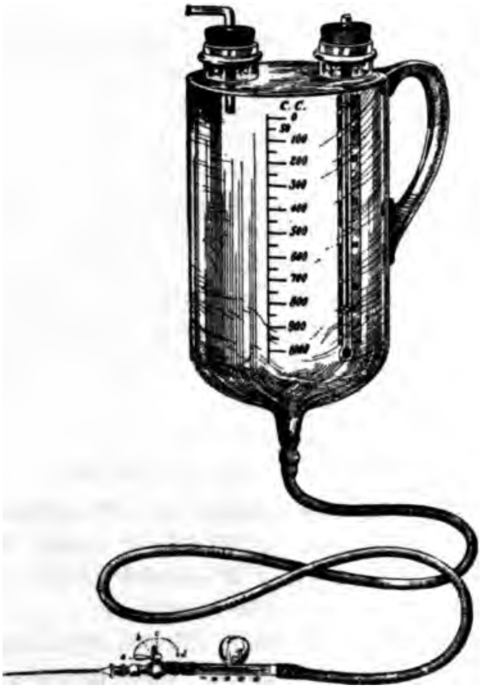

Fig. 202.—Coffey's Glass Apparatus Devised for Hypodermic Saline Injections. The temperature of solutions can be seen and regulated by the thermometer. A second thermometer shows the temperature of the solution as it enters the body. This apparatus can also be used for colonic flushings by removing the needle and attaching a rectal tube.

The Hot-air Bath.—Place the child in bed and cover with two blankets. On either side place hot-water bottles or hot bags of sand so protected that the child cannot be burned. Over these place a rubber cloth or a raincoat. Over the rubber place another blanket. Sweating occurs very easily and very quickly in this manner. In an emergency the ordinary flat-iron can be used, instead of the hot-water bottles, for a hot-air bath.

Pilocarpin and jaborandi are such cardiac depressants that they are merely mentioned to be condemned. Nitroglycerine is very valuable. When a general dropsy appears, the danger of effusion into the serous cavities must be borne in mind. When necessary the effusion should be relieved by aspiration. The quantity of urine passed is the most important point which should guide us in determining the result of the treatment. Liquids should be given to stimulate diuresis.

If the quantity of urine increases and the percentage of albumin decreases, then our patient is improving. The disappearance of blood corpuscles and casts denotes improvement. One of the best drugs to aid diuresis is diuretine, to be given in doses of 3 grains for a child two years old, and gradually increased until 5 grains per dose is administered. This drug should be given at least three times a day to stimulate the kidneys. Another drug highly recommended by Prof. Baginsky is theocine. It can be given in the same dosage as diuretine and the dose repeated several times a day. In a certain class of cases agurin acts well, and can be recommended, because it does not disturb the stomach. Now and then I have noticed that marked vomiting followed the administration of almost any drug during the course of nephritis; hence, great care should be taken not on that account to condemn a drug during the course of nephritis with toxic or uræmic symptoms.

Salt-free Diet.[1]—When the kidneys are affected, their activity is diminished, and an excess of salt is stored in the tissues. As each molecule of salt requires a certain quantity of water to hold it in solution, such water will be abstracted from the tissues, giving rise to the dropsical condition. By giving a diet which is free from salt, we can decrease the œdema.

Restorative treatment, such as iron, strychnine, malt extract, and cod-liver-oil, should be given after the symptoms of nephritis subside. The child should be kept well protected for at least two months after the first symptoms appear.

As soon as the temperature falls to the normal point we can give:—

℞ Mist. ferri et ammonii acetatis,
Glycerini .... āā 1 fluid ounce
Aquæ .... q. s. ad 4 fluid ounces
M. Sig.: A teaspoonful or more every three hours, in water.

Or Basham's mixture may be given:—

℞ Tinct. ferri chloridi,
Acidi acetici dil. .... āā 1 fluid drachm
Liq. ammonii acetatis .... 6 fluid drachms
Aquæ .... q. s. ad 6 fluid ounces
M. Sig.: Tablespoonful three times daily for a child six years old.

Endocarditis or *Pericarditis.*—The heart requires careful watching, especially if symptoms of rheumatism appear. Sudden death will frequently occur from heart-failure.

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[1] L'Echo Medical du Nord, January 20, 1907, p. 25.

A case of this kind was seen by me in consultation with Dr. S. Straus, of New York City, in which a child desquamating with scarlet fever had myo- and endocarditis. There was a general anasarca. The pulse became very weak during the hot-air bath. The child died suddenly. It is very apparent, therefore, that the hot-air bath is not without its dangers.

Otitis.[1]—The escape of pus from the external auditory canal is by no means rare. The extension of a bacterial infection—streptococcus inflammation—from the pharynx through the Eustachian tube can sometimes be aborted by local treatment. Too great stress cannot be laid on the active antiseptic treatment of the nasopharynx as a means of prophylaxis. When earache occurs, no matter how slight, then the ears should be examined. It is better to call an aurist to make sure of the diagnosis and treatment, rather than risk the dangers of mastoid inflammation, with the possible extension of a meningitis and a fatal outcome. Until then, local treatment, such as the application of a hot-water bag to the ear, or cotton inserted into the ear, will afford temporary relief. The danger of using cocaine should not be forgotten, although it is a valuable remedy. When pus is evident, as shown by the bulging of the membrane, then a paracentesis should be performed, and the cavity irrigated with boric acid solution, or 1 part of hydrogen peroxide and 5 parts of sterile water. The ear should not be packed with gauze, but should be permitted to discharge and drain freely. Restorative treatment, such as has been previously mentioned in conjunction with nephritis in this chapter, is indicated.

Diet.—Generally speaking, during the febrile stage and until the end of the second week, an exclusive liquid diet of milk or milk and barley water should be given. If milk is not well digested, then whey should be tried (see "Dietary"). Later, beef soup, mutton or chicken broth, buttermilk, all gruels, fruits, fruit jellies, toast, weak tea, weak coffee, cocoa, and chocolate. For thirst—Appollinaris, Vichy, and lemonade. The tendency to nephritis seems to be lessened by giving our patients a milk diet; hence this fact must be borne in mind. Steak juice and egg albumin, diluted with water, can be given later on.

Serum Treatment.—Antistreptococcus serum has been extensively used. It has its opponents and some who extol its virtues. Baginsky[2] reports a series of 48 cases treated with serum, of which 7 were fatal, a mortality of 14.6 per cent.

A clinical study of the value of antistreptococcus serum was reported by me[3] in a paper read before the Section on Pediatrics of the New York Academy of Medicine.

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[1] Read also chapter on "Acute Otitis Media."

[2] Berlin. klin. Woch., 1896, No. 33, p. 340.

[3] "Value of Antistreptococcus Serum," May 12, 1898.

Antistreptococcus serum (Aronson's[1]) was sent to me in the winter of 1902-1903. The serum proved very successful in a series of cases in my private practice.[2]

Through the courtesy of Professor Escherich I saw a number of cases that were treated by Moser's antistreptococcus serum at the Children's Hospital in Vienna while in Europe in May, 1903.

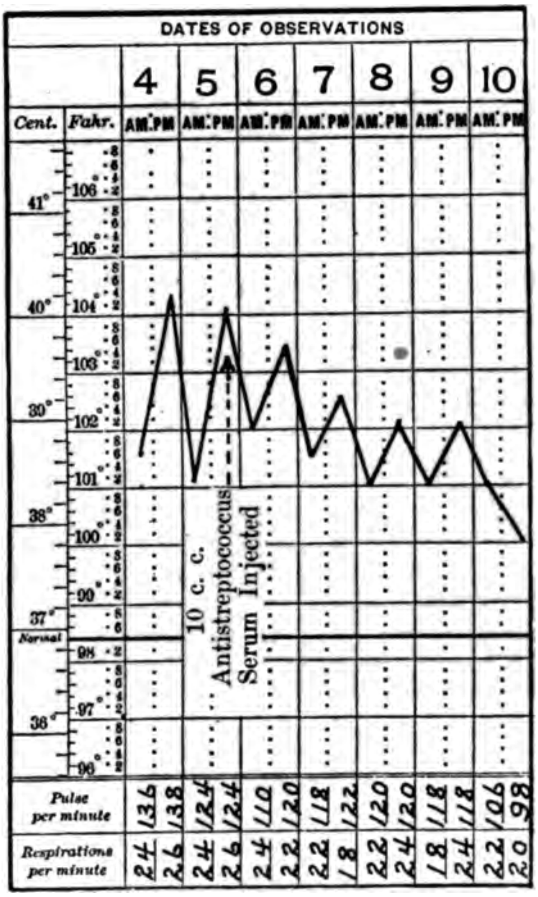

Fig. 203.—Temperature Chart from a Case of Scarlet Fever Treated with Antistreptococcus Serum. (Original.)

All of these serum cases did remarkably well. I was impressed by the excellent results, especially by the *distinct fever crisis*, after the necessary dose of serum was injected. The streptolytic serum made by Stearn is well worth trying in severe scarlet fever.

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[1] I am indebted to Messrs. Schering & Glatz for sending me sufficient serum for clinical trial.

[2] New York Medical Record, March 7, 1903.

The preceding chart is the record of a case occurring in my private practice.

The specific action of antitoxin in diphtheria is far greater comparatively than the action attained from the use of this antistreptococcus serum.

The Temperature.—The effect of the serum on the temperature shows that it did inhibit bacterial products. Within twelve to twenty-four hours after the serum injection I have seen a distinct crisis in the temperature. In other cases the temperature was gradually reduced by lysis. (Fig. 203.)

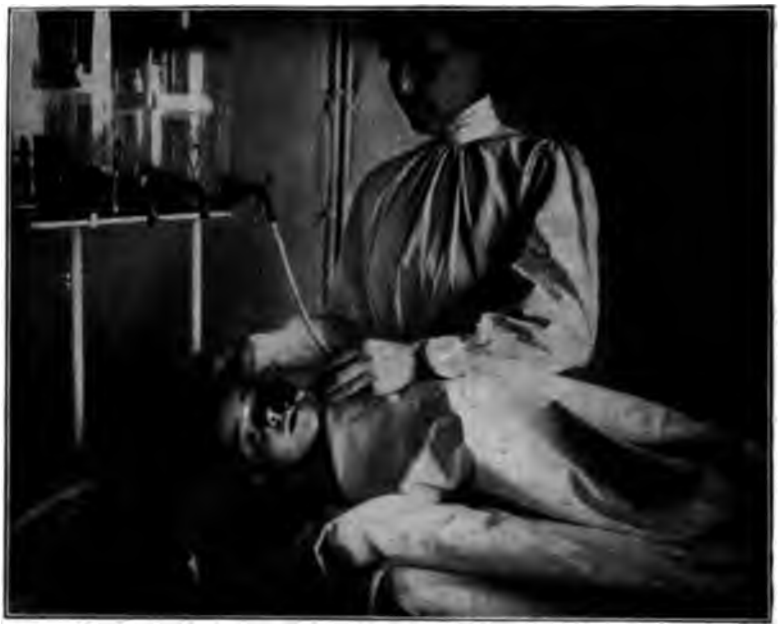

Fig. 204.—Method of Nasal Syringing employed in the Scarlet Fever Ward of the Riverside Hospital. (Original.)

Another interesting observation in most cases is the disappearance, *almost melting away*, of the necrotic membranes after the fourth day. The glands of the neck were swollen and subsided with the disappearance of the throat manifestations. The vital point consisted in a strengthening diet in addition to strict hygiene. I feel warranted in advocating the use of this serum in the treatment of scarlet fever.

Medicinal Treatment.—The Throat: When children are old enough to use a gargle they should be given a mild antiseptic solution, such as table-salt solution, using a pinch of salt to a wineglassful of lukewarm water. Gargle every hour.

A spray consisting of normal saline solution directed against the pharynx and tonsils every hour is useful. If spraying is difficult, then the throat may be swabbed with cotton dipped in saline solution. High temperature will frequently subside if the nasopharynx is properly irrigated.

The septic accumulations are very serious and cause profound toxæmia unless cleansed thoroughly.

Tincture of iodine carefully applied to the tonsils and pharynx, once only, is advised. Local applications of 50 per cent. resorcin solution in alcohol, applied on cotton several times a day, are also advised.

Nasal Douching.—My preference has always been for mild saline douches. Hold the child firmly and cleanse the nares with a nasal tip attached to a fountain syringe, at a height of no more than two feet. Permanganate of potash, several crystals to a pint of water, is very good when there is fœtor.

℞ Natrium sozoiodol,
Flor. sulphur ....of each, equal parts.
M. For insufflation into the nostril three or four times a day.

This seemed to exert a very beneficial effect on the necrotic tissue, causing a clearing of the throat.

If the treatment causes nausea or vomiting, then the sozoiodol natrium can be given internally in the following manner:—

℞ Natrium sozoiodol	2.0
Aquæ	100.0

M. Sig.: Teaspoonful every hour.

Swollen Lymph Glands.—In septic scarlet fever with necrotic pseudomembranes in the throat, the adjacent lymph glands will be swollen.

At times there is an extensive œdema and infiltration extending into the glottis, which can result in asphyxia.

Such cases will be benefited by the use of thorough inunctions of *Credé ointment.*[1] It must be distinctly understood that no result will be noted unless the ointment is rubbed into the swollen glands at the angle of the jaw for at least fifteen minutes. This can be repeated several times a day.

I also have used inunctions along the spine to promote absorption over a greater area. This has proven very efficacious in many cases.

Forchheimer advocates the use of sterile normal salt solution subcutaneously. This is done to stimulate diuresis and also to aid in the elimination of toxins. In my own practice I have found marked benefit from irrigating the colon with a rectal tube introduced about six inches, *using several pints of normal salt solution at a temperature of 110° to 115° F.* This is a very rapid and convenient method in an emergency, especially when one is hampered by necessary irrigators and needles, as we require only an ordinary fountain syringe and the rectal catheter connected with it.

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[1] Schering & Glatz, agents, New York City.

Immunity from Diphtheria.—An injection of 500 to 2000 antitoxin units will confer immunity from diphtheria in a case of scarlet fever.

Diphtheria.—If diphtheria complicates scarlet fever, then the usual treatment of diphtheria should be instituted (see chapter on "Diphtheria").

At the Riverside Hospital every case of scarlet fever is injected with 500 to 1000 diphtheria antitoxin units as a prophylactic measure. By this means Dr. Richardson believes that we have reduced the complication of diphtheria in about 50 to 75 per cent. of all cases.

Septic Scarlet Fever.—In septic cases where the system is overwhelmed with toxin, we frequently have extreme prostration, rapid pulse rate, and temperature ranging between 100° and 101°. In other cases the temperature may rise to 104° or 105°, all depending on the disturbance of the thermic center. It is in this class of cases that we welcome almost any remedy. Intravenous injections of 0.2 to 0.3 gramme neosalvarsan rendered very good results. Out of 12 hopeless cases injected, 7 recovered.

Since the introduction of neosalvarsan, the technique of preparation has been greatly simplified. The neosalvarsan is dissolved in sterile water, and is ready for injection. For a young infant under 1 year 0.1 gramme of neosalvarsan is dissolved in 20 cubic centimeters of sterile water and injected into the jugular vein. An older child, 2 to 4 years, may receive 0.2 gramme of neosalvarsan in 40 cubic centimeters of sterile water. Owing to the small size of the median basilic vein at the bend of the elbow, it may be necessary to incise the skin and expose the vein to insert the needle. My preference has been to inject into the jugular vein. The technique is simple if the neck is properly supported. No systemic effect is noticeable after these injections. By using the neosalvarsan we avoid the complicated preparation which was necessary in the use of salvarsan.

An illustration of the technique of injecting into the median basilic vein may be seen on page 537.

A series of cases of severe scarlet fever[1] in which profound toxæmia existed were injected with neosalvarsan. In a case of severe noma complicating scarlet fever an injection of 0.2 gramme of neosalvarsan was given with excellent results.

There is no specific drug or serum in use today, so that too much should not be expected from neosalvarsan.

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[1] Reported at the International Medical Congress, London, 1913. Section on Diseases of Children.

CHAPTER X.

VARICELLA (CHICKEN-POX).

VARICELLA is a specific infectious disease of an acute character. The eruption consists of vesicles, which appear in successive crops. The attack lasts in all from four to fourteen days. After one attack the child is usually immune during the rest of its life.

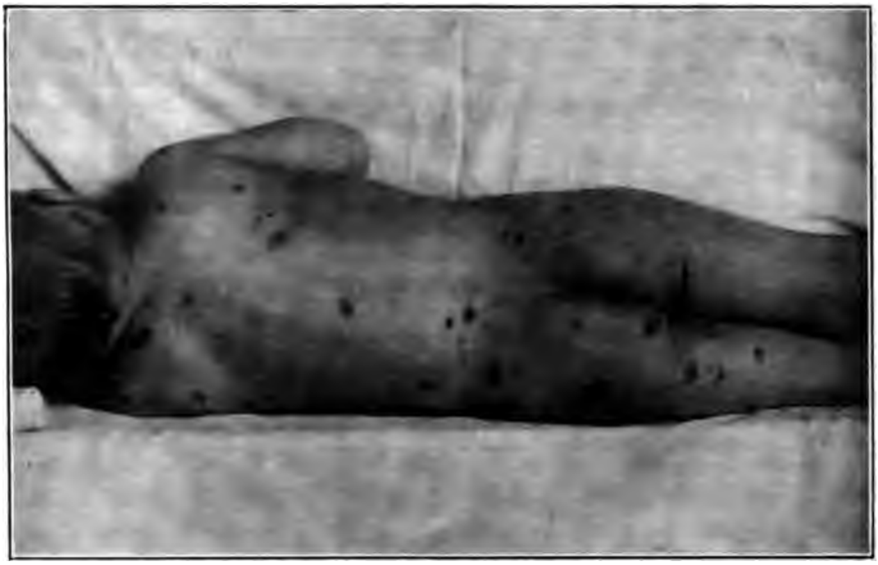

Fig. 205.—Pustules surrounded by an inflammatory areola. From the service of the Willard Parker Hospital. (Courtesy of Dr. Howard Fox.)

Etiology.—This disease is seen only in young children; the older the child, the less liable it is to have chicken-pox. Nurslings are frequently afflicted.

Hutchinson states that in his experience adults are almost absolutely immune from this disease. In my own practice the majority of cases seen by me have been in children between the second and tenth years of age.

Pathology.—The pathological lesions are confined wholly to the epidermis. "The vesicles contain granular fibrin, a moderate cellular exudate, cellular *débris*, and serum; this differs markedly from the exudate in variola, which is usually very rich in cells, especially plasma cells. The pock in varicella is shallow, rarely involving the papillæ of the cutis, and as its contents are absorbed, the superficial covering is cast off in the form of a brownish scab, sometimes with marked pigmentation, but no resulting scar. The occurrence of a scar following the varicella lesion is occasionally seen."

Diagnosis.—The distinguishing features of varicella are: "(*a*) Its mild prodromal symptoms, which may be wholly absent. (*b*) The appearance of the eruption on the trunk, where it is usually more abundant than on the face and hands. (*c*) The multiform character of the eruption, its superficial position, comparable to drops of water sprinkled over the skin, and its appearance on the same region in successive crops. (*d*) Its mild constitutional symptoms and short duration; the disease usually terminates within from five to fourteen days. (*e*) Varicella is mildly infectious and always gives rise to a like disease."

A nursing infant, about five months old, refused the breast, and seemed to show a general malaise. The infant had previously enjoyed good health. The nursing was regularly carried out and the bowels were normal. The temperature was 100° F. There was no cough. On the second day of this malaise several vesicles appeared on the abdomen and back. Later, some vesicles appeared on the buttocks, thighs, and in the roof of the mouth. There was no constitutional disturbance and on the third day of illness the infant again nursed as usual. Several successive crops appeared, and each eruption remained about three days. Local treatment consisted in dusting the parts with cornstarch. Bathing was prohibited and small doses of calomel were given. No complications followed.

Differential Diagnosis.—This disease may be confounded with variola, as some mild cases of variola resemble chicken-pox. "The superficial strata of the epidermis are principally involved, and a serous exudate, which is frequently the first symptom of the disease, occurs at this point, resulting in a transparent, thin-walled vesicle, while in variola the shot-like, deep-seated induration and subsequent vesicular formation are sufficiently distinctive to warrant a differential diagnosis. The lesions in varicella, as a consequence, are easily destroyed, and when seen present a transparent, beady appearance, some of which, having ruptured, leave excoriated areas; whereas in variola it is impossible to rupture the lesions so as to evacuate the entire contents without numerous punctures or by totally destroying the diseased area."

In variola we have more uniformity of development: first papules followed by pustules and ending in desiccation, leaving black crusts. In chicken-pox we find a *varying of lesions at the same time*, so that we may have *macules, vesicles, and pustules* at one and the same time. In variola the eruption is thickly seen on the face and hands, the exposed portions of the body. In chicken-pox the eruption is seen on the abdomen and back; the parts protected by clothing are usually first covered. When called to doubtful cases the following points are worth noting:—

Umbilication is seen in smallpox; it is *absent* in chicken-pox. "The length of time since vaccination, and whether or not the patient has ever had chicken-pox. Smallpox is extremely seldom encountered within three or four years after vaccination, while after that time the number of cases of varioloid or abortive smallpox steadily increase. Chicken-pox, like smallpox, occurs but once in the same individual. Prodromal symptoms are always present for several days, usually three, in variola; absent or of a few hours' duration in varicella.

"The temperature often renders valuable aid in differentiating between the two diseases. In variola it rises rapidly, and even in mild or abortive cases usually reaches 103° to 104° F., when, on the appearance of the rash, a crisis takes place and it falls to the normal within a few hours, where it may remain throughout the remainder of the disease. Varicella, on the contrary, is seldom ushered in with fever, but the temperature usually rises one or more degrees as the eruption develops. When the case is seen for the first time after the eruption has appeared and, as often occurs, no definite history can be obtained, other symptoms must be relied upon."

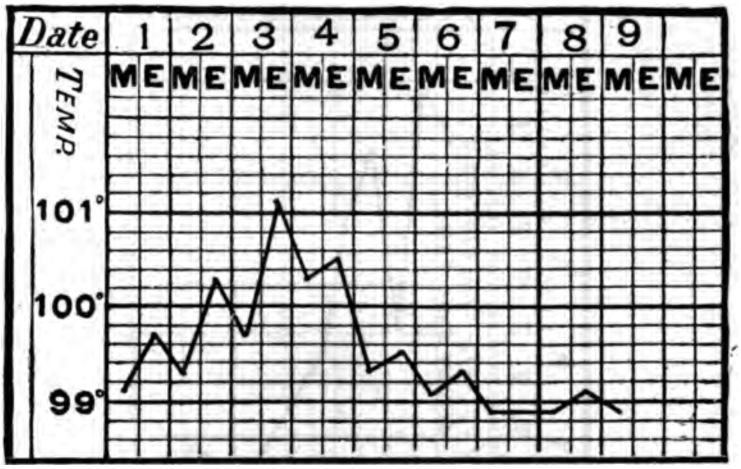

Fig. 206.—Temperature Curve in Varicella. (Original.)

Varicella may also resemble impetigo. Impetigo is first seen on the face, especially about the mouth and nose. It is also seen on the hands. In studying the regional appearance of the eruption one can readily see the transmission and inoculation from face to hands and *vice versâ*. This condition is never met with in chicken-pox. Impetigo may last weeks and months. Chicken-pox rarely exists more than two weeks. Impetigo is contagious and not infectious. Chicken-pox has been successfully inoculated.

Prognosis.—The prognosis is invariably good. I have never heard of a fatal case of chicken-pox. Complications should, however, be guarded against and not invited by carelessness.

Treatment.—A child suffering with chicken-pox should be put to bed and strictly isolated. Healthy children should not come into contact with a case of chicken-pox for at least two weeks.

The diet should be liquid, and feeding should be given at regular intervals. The bowels should be loose, and if necessary stimulated by the aid of a laxative.

For the eruption flannels and woolens should be avoided, and a cool, loosely fitting linen or muslin shirt or gown should be worn. It is safe to prohibit the daily bath until the eruption has disappeared. I prefer to dust the skin with some bland dusting powder, such as talcum, cornstarch, or rice powder, several times a day. Iron and tonics may be given later if required. Locally, a paste made by mixing bicarbonate of soda with cold water and applied to the chicken-pox is cooling.

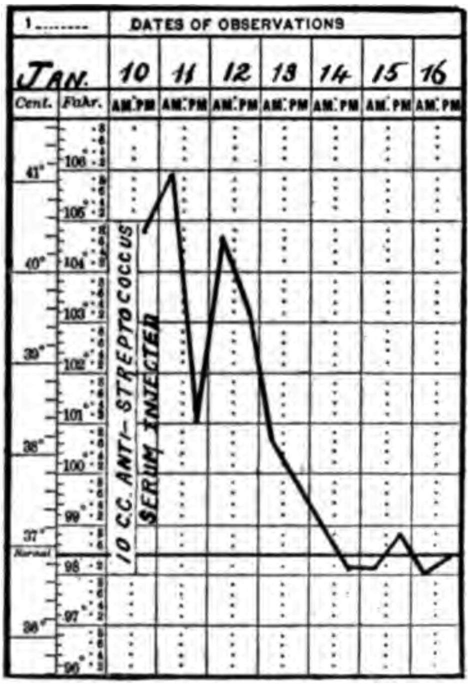

Fig. 207.—Erysipelas Following Varicella. Locally, pure alcohol in which 1 : 2000 bichloride mercury was dissolved was applied on the erysipelatous surface continually. Case recovered. (Original.)

Baby B., five months old, was attended by me in January, 1905. The infant had a severe form of varicella with gastric disturbances, such as vomiting and diarrhœa. On the sixth day after the appearance of the chicken-pox the infant scratched its arm. On the following day there was a temperature of 102° and a diffuse swelling surrounded the upper arm. There was marked tenderness and pain on the slightest motion. The swelling increased. The arm became reddened and a diffuse erysipelas was diagnosed. The temperature increased to 105.8°. The case was then seen by Dr. A. Jacobi in consultation.

Treatment.—Local treatment consisting of evaporating cooling lotions; lead and opium wash and bichloride were used without any marked benefit. Credé ointment was rubbed into the axillary glands several times a day. An injection of 10 cubic centimeters of antistreptococcus serum (Aronson) seemed to have very good effect. The cooling lotions were continued, but within twenty-four hours after the serum injection the temperature came down by lysis and after four days the temperature was normal. The case recovered.

CHAPTER XI.

VARIOLA (SMALLPOX).

This acute infectious and contagious disease is frequently seen in unvaccinated children. It is rarely met with in children that have been properly vaccinated. I have seen smallpox in very young infants and children *that were unvaccinated during my service at the Riverside Hospital* in the summer of 1902.

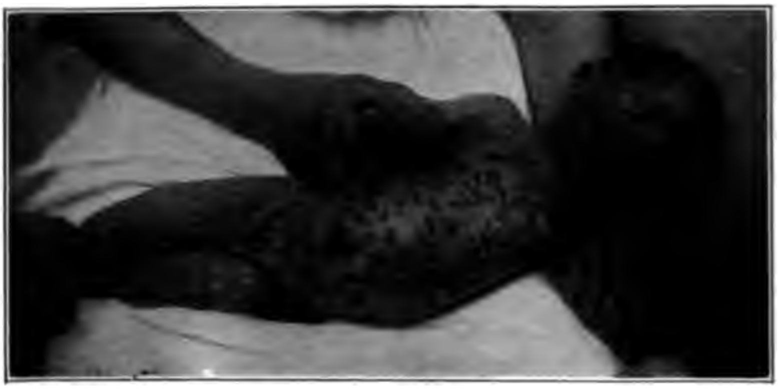

Fig. 208.—Fatal Smallpox in an Unvaccinated Four-weeks-old Infant. Seventh day of eruption. (Kindness of Dr. J. F. Schamberg.)

Etiology.—The etiological factor, most likely a specific micro-organism, has not yet been found.

Among unvaccinated children between 1 and 10 years of age, some authors state that 58 per cent. die. During the Sheffield epidemic, of 2892 unvaccinated children under 10 years of age living in infected

Table No. 65.—*Showing Number of Cases, and Percentage of Mortality (Allbutt's System)*

	Unvaccinated.			Vaccinated.		
	Cases.	Deaths.	Mortality Per cent.	Cases.	Deaths.	Mortality Per cent.
Under 5 years	1131	647	57.2	385	30	7.8
5 to 9 years	952	385	40.4	1468	59	4.0
10 to 14 years	607	155	25.5	3080	90	2.9
Totals	2690	1187	41.3	4933	179	4.9

houses, 7.8 per cent. were attacked. During the Warrington epidemic 54.5 per cent. of unvaccinated children under 10 years of age were attacked.

It is a curious fact that the resistance of children is less than that of adults. Nursing infants frequently have mouth, nose, and throat complications, which seriously interfere with their feeding, causing death.

There are three types of variola:—

TABLE No. 66.

1. Natural	**Discrete**	**Discrete when the eruption is scattered**
	Confluent	**Confluent when the eruption is thick and flows together.**
	Semi-confluent	**Semi-confluent when the eruption is discrete in some parts and confluent in others.**
2. Hæmorrhagic	**Purpuric**	
	Hæmorrhagic	
	Exudative	
3. Modified.	**Anomalous**	
	Corymbose	**Corymbose when the eruption forms groups or clusters on various parts of the body.**

The mode of infection is most probably a micro-organism which exists either in the vesicles, pustules, or crusts. It may be carried in the air so that infection may take place at some distance from the body. Some authors believe that the blood of smallpox patients contains the poison. Smallpox can be transmitted directly from person to person. It can also be transmitted from bedding or clothing worn by an infected person. *Entering a room* during the pustular and desquamative stages is sufficient to communicate the disease.

Symptoms.—In young children the disease is usually ushered in with convulsions. The pulse-rate ranges between 130 and 160. The respiration is labored and increased in frequency.

Curschmann believes that these symptoms are due to an irritation of the respiratory centers.

The *temperature* rises rapidly and continuously *without* the morning remission. Beginning with 102° or 103° F. on the first day of illness, the temperature soon reaches 105° F. (40.5° C.) until the eruption appears.

With the first appearance of the eruption, the temperature frequently drops to normal. *This symptom of fever occurs in no other exanthematous eruption.*

The Eruption.—"Reddish specks or dots developed into papules resembling flea-bites appear about the second day. After the papules have attained the size of a small pea their summits gradually assume a translucent glazed appearance which indicates the formation of a vesicle. As this enlarges a central depression or umbilication takes place which is looked upon as characteristic of the smallpox lesion. If punctured a small amount of mucilaginous serum exudes. The eruption is not confined to the skin, but is met with in the mucous membrane on the mouth, throat, and nose.

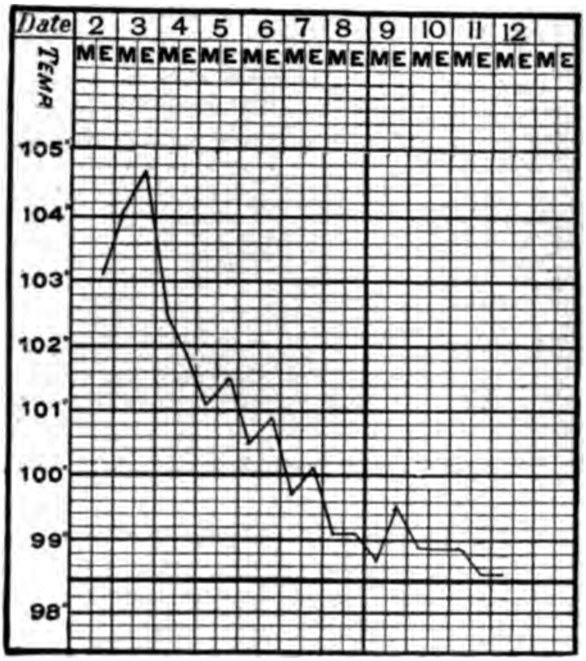

Fig. 209.—Temperature Curve in Variola. (Original.)

Stage of Suppuration.—On the sixth day of the eruption there is a decided yellowish tint, due to the presence of pus cells or polymorphonuclear leucocytes resembling cream. The face usually presents an erysipelatous redness.

Stage of Decline.—About the twelfth day of the eruption there is a spontaneous rupture of the pustules. After the contents are thus evacuated, or by absorption, we see *evidences of desiccation.* The pustular contents dry up and the pustule dies, leaving a blackish crust. These blackish or brownish crusts appear first where the eruption took place. We therefore first note this condition on the arms, palms, and soles. The crusts separate from the body between the sixteenth and twenty-first days.

Desquamation of a furfuraceous character takes place, lasting from one to two weeks. After this condition has disappeared the patient may be regarded as cured.

Differential Diagnosis. — Corlett describes the great resemblance of smallpox to typhoid fever in its early stages, in a case seen by him. A strong Widal reaction was found, besides a bronchitis.

Measles frequently resembles smallpox. Catarrhal symptoms always present in measles are absent in smallpox. The lesions in measles are flat, soft, and velvety to the touch. The papules of smallpox are small and feel like shot imbedded in the skin.

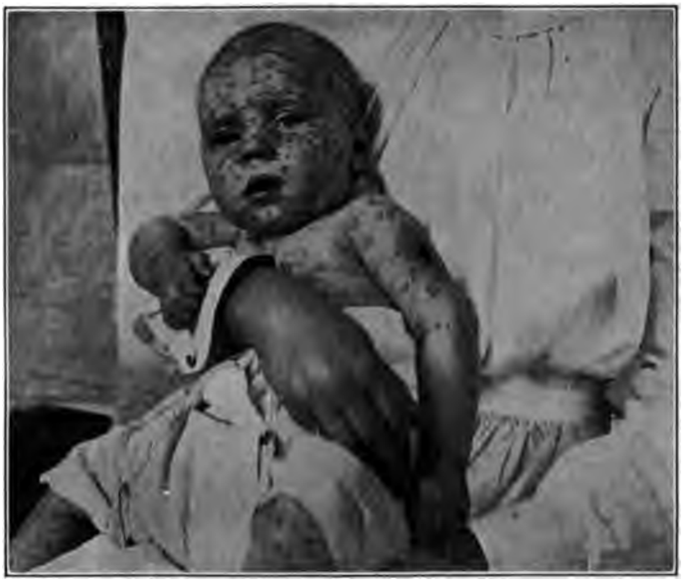

Fig. 210.—**Smallpox in a Child that was Vaccinated During the Incubation Period. Vaccination performed five days before the appearance of the variolous eruption. Little or no modification. (Kindness of Dr. J. F. Schamberg.)**

Scarlet fever sometimes resembles variola of a mild form. The premonitory symptoms of variola are very severe, and last two or three days, whereas those of scarlet fever are mild, last a few hours, and not infrequently are entirely overlooked. The rash in scarlet fever appears on the upper part of the body, chest, cheeks, and neck. In variola a scarlatinal form of eruption is seen on the lower part of the abdomen and on the inner surface of the thighs. It is bright and fiery red in scarlet fever and dull red in variola. The conspicuous papillæ or strawberry tongue is present in scarlet fever and absent in smallpox.

Impetigo is frequently mistaken for smallpox. Corlett describes the presence of supposed impetigo in Ohio in 1898 which gave rise later on to an epidemic of smallpox. Thus it is apparent that there is a great resemblance between impetigo and smallpox, and *vice versâ.*

Chicken-pox is frequently mistaken for smallpox. I have already outlined the differential points in describing chicken-pox (see chapter on "Varicella").

Syphilis may sometimes be mistaken for variola. A study of the temperature and pulse and careful observation for several days will usually clear up the diagnosis. In variola the eruption assumes a pustular character on the palms and soles.

The Prognosis and Course are always bad in unvaccinated children, especially in the very young. In the vaccinated the prognosis is always good.

A series of cases was seen by me, during the summer of 1902, in the smallpox wards of the North Brothers' Island Hospital. Out of twelve children seen not one had been vaccinated. One child was infected by its mother.

As a rule the course extends over three weeks, rarely lasting four weeks. Complications of the nose, mouth, and throat of a catarrhal nature are occasionally seen. The outcome of the cases seen by me was quite good in spite of the severe character of the disease.

Complications.—Swelling of the mucous membrane, such as œdema of the glottis, bronchitis, and broncho-pneumonia, frequently complicates variola. The eruption plus secretion, when present in the throat, are the cause of great irritation, and give rise to a hacking cough. Suffocatory symptoms may follow œdema of the glottis. Otitis of a purulent nature is frequently seen. It is usually accompanied by severe neuralgic pains.

Treatment.—The best sanitary surroundings, fresh air, and the strictest possible isolation are advisable. The local application of a solution of glycerine and carbolic acid will tend to relieve the itching, and to soften the crusts.

The bowels should be kept thoroughly cleansed, and the patient made comfortable by a tepid pack if the temperature is high or if delirium is present. An ice-cap and cold colon flushing will render the patient more comfortable. If cardiac depression exists, stimulation with musk, camphor, or champagne is advisable. Regarding sanitary measures the New York Health Department requires the immediate removal of a case of this kind to the smallpox hospital. The disinfection and thorough fumigation of everything which was in contact with the case must be remembered if we wish to prevent the spread of the disease.

VARIOLOID (MODIFIED SMALLPOX).

The symptoms are milder, the papules less in number, and the general condition shows an infection of a lesser type than we see in variola.

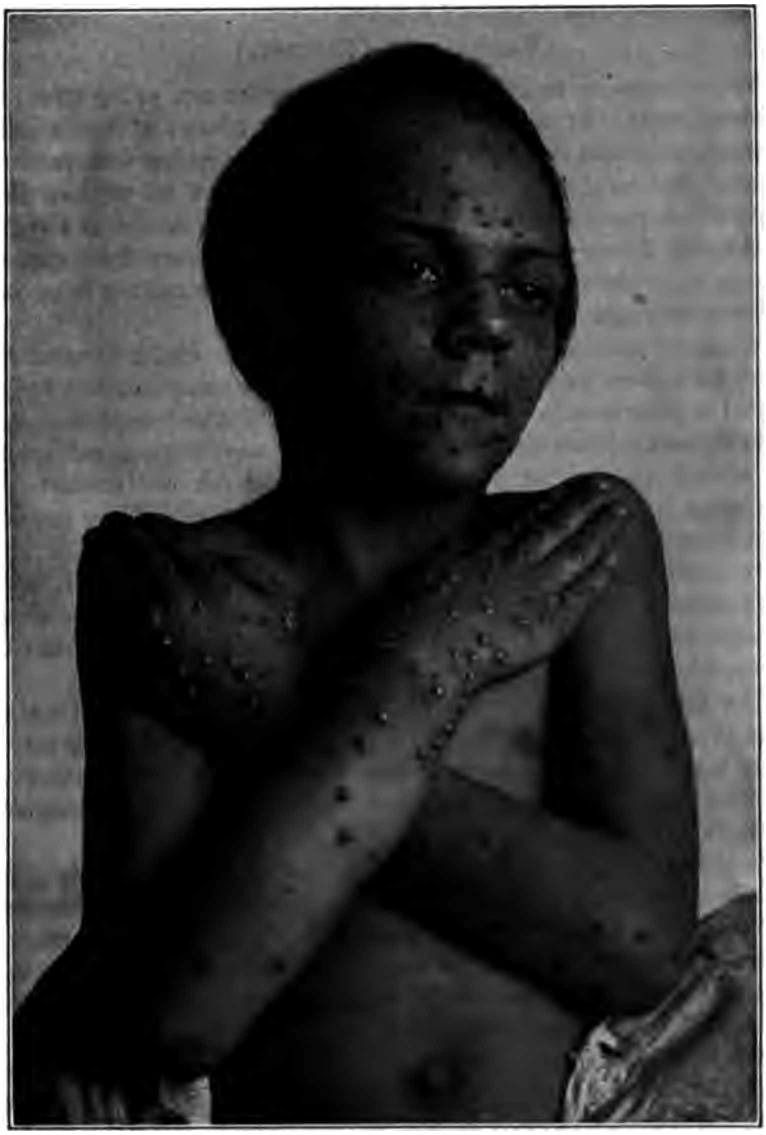

Fig. 211.—Mild Discrete Smallpox in an Unvaccinated Girl. Note absence of lesions upon the trunk. (Kindness of Dr. J. F. Schamberg.)

Treatment.—A child suffering with chicken-pox should be put to bed and strictly isolated. Healthy children should not come into contact with a case of chicken-pox for at least two weeks.

The diet should be liquid, and feeding should be given at regular intervals. The bowels should be loose, and if necessary stimulated by the aid of a laxative.

For the eruption flannels and woolens should be avoided, and a cool, loosely fitting linen or muslin shirt or gown should be worn. It is safe to prohibit the daily bath until the eruption has disappeared. I prefer to dust the skin with some bland dusting powder, such as talcum, cornstarch, or rice powder, several times a day. Iron and tonics may be given later if required. Locally, a paste made by mixing bicarbonate of soda with cold water and applied to the chicken-pox is cooling.

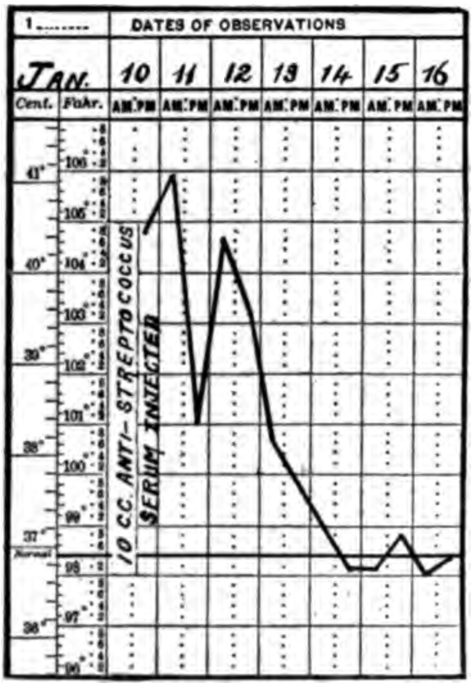

Fig. 207.—Erysipelas Following Varicella. Locally, pure alcohol in which 1:2000 bichloride mercury was dissolved was applied on the erysipelatous surface continually. Case recovered. (Original.)

Baby B., five months old, was attended by me in January, 1905. The infant had a severe form of varicella with gastric disturbances, such as vomiting and diarrhœa. On the sixth day after the appearance of the chicken pox the infant scratched its arm. On the following day there was a temperature of 102° and a diffuse swelling surrounded the upper arm. There was marked tenderness and pain on the slightest motion. The swelling increased. The arm became reddened and a diffuse erysipelas was diagnosed. The temperature increased to 105.8°. The case was then seen by Dr. A. Jacobi in consultation.

Treatment.—Local treatment consisting of evaporating cooling lotions; lead and opium wash and bichloride were used without any marked benefit. Credé ointment was rubbed into the axillary glands several times a day. An injection of 10 cubic centimeters of antistreptococcus serum (Aronson) seemed to have very good effect. The cooling lotions were continued, but within twenty-four hours after the serum injection the temperature came down by lysis and after four days the temperature was normal. The case recovered.

CHAPTER XII.

TYPHOID FEVER.

TYPHOID FEVER is an acute infectious disease caused by the invasion of a specific micro-organism, known as Eberth's typhoid bacillus.

Etiology.—Typhoid is rarely seen in infants. It is most frequently seen in children over 5 years of age. In a series of 97 cases described by Henoch:—

2 cases occurred during the 1st year
21 cases between the 2d and 5th years
59 cases between the 5th and 10th years

Von Steffens in a series of 148 cases reports:—

2 cases occurred during the 1st year
28 cases between the 3d and 6th years
34 cases between the 6th and 9th years

I have seen typhoid fever in an infant 1 year old which was infected by its mother.

Baginsky describes an epidemic of typhoid seen by him in Germany in which 16 cases were under 10 years of age.

Infected water and infected milk appear to have caused this disease more than any other factor. Baginsky mentions flies as an occasional source of infection.

The New York Health Department, in a circular of information concerning the urine in typhoid fever, directs attention to the fact that "the typhoid bacilli are present in almost incredible numbers, estimated at many millions per cubic centimeter."

These germs find a suitable culture medium for their propagation in the intestinal tract. They are very easily found in the fæces in the living state during the height of the disease.

The entrance of the typhoid bacillus into the gastro-intestinal tract, whether it is in food, liquid or solid, is responsible for the disease. It is true that a receptive condition may exist. A child having had a series of gastro-intestinal attacks is more liable to an infection than one whose digestive tract is normal. Rickets and a general debilitated condition certainly favor the development of typhoid.

Typhoid fever occurs most frequently in the fall of the year. I have seen more cases of typhoid in children during September and October than during the rest of the year. During the fall and winter of 1902 and 1903 some of the worst cases of typhoid with hæmorrhages occurred.

Bacteriology.—The typhoid bacillus resembles the bacillus coli communis, and is found chiefly in the lymphoid tissue of the small intestines, especially in Peyer's patches, where it produces a specific inflammation. The bacillus is found not only within the intestines, but in the glands as well. Neuhaus found the bacillus by puncturing the roseolar eruption and examining the blood therein. It has also been found in laryngeal ulcerations during typhoid. The bacillus was also found in the purulent meningitis accompanying typhoid, so that we can be reasonably certain that the bacillus abounds in almost every part of the body. The action of typhoid bacillus on the human system is toxic. Brieger isolated a poison from the typhoid bacillus, which is called the typhotoxin.

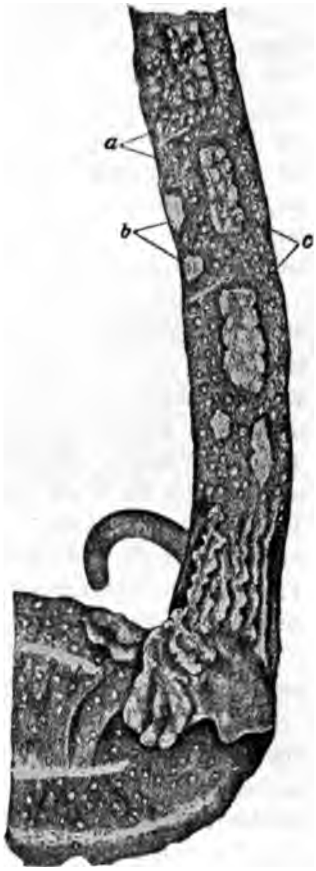

Fig. 212.—Typhoid Infantum in a 2-Year-Old Boy. *(a)* Solitary follicle; *(b)* small agminated gland; *(c)* Peyer's patch. General medullary infiltration, no ulceration. Natural size. (Langerhans.)

Pathology.—The pathological findings consist in an inflammatory condition of the mesenteric glands; besides these the solitary and agminated glands of the ileum and colon not only show evidences of swelling, but when the disease progresses it frequently terminates in ulceration and necrosis.

Occasionally the glands will show a softening and pus will develop. The spleen is usually very large and soft, and quite palpable. When the disease lasts several weeks and there are evidences of a distinct toxæmia, the poison will cause a marked degeneration of the kidneys and liver, also affecting the heart muscles, which, later, will be found very soft and flabby.

Morse[1] reports several cases of *fœtal* and *infantile typhoid.*

Fœtal and Infantile Typhoid.—In regard to fœtal typhoid he says that the typhoid bacillus can transverse the abnormal, and possibly the normal placenta from mother to fœtus. Other organisms may also pass in the same way.

Infection of the fœtus results. Because of the direct entrance of the bacilli into the circulation, intrauterine typhoid is from the first a general septicæmia. For this reason, and possibly also because the intestines are not functionating, the classical lesions of intrauterine typhoid are wanting.

The fœtus usually dies in utero or at birth as the result of the typhoid infection.

It may be born alive but feeble and suffering from the infection. If so, death occurs in a few days without definite symptoms.

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[1] Archives of Pediatrics for December, 1900.

It is possible that the fœtus may pass through the infection in utero and be born alive and well. There is, however, no proof that this happens.

Infection does not always occur. The pregnant woman does not necessarily transmit the disease to her child.

As to infantile typhoid Morse concludes that except for the lessened exposure in the first year through food there seems no obvious reason why typhoid should be less frequent in infancy than in later life. Nevertheless, judging from the small number of cases reported, it is less frequent. It may really be less frequent, or only apparently so because the disease is not recognized, being mistaken for other conditions. Bacteriological examinations in large series of autopsies on infants and the use of the Widal serum test in large numbers of sick babies seem to offer the best means for determining both the frequency and the character of the disease at this age.

The accuracy of the diagnosis in many of the earlier reported cases must be regarded as very doubtful, and hence no satisfactory conclusions can be drawn from them. Analysis of the more recent and certain cases seems to show that the symptoms of infantile typhoid are essentially the same as in adults, but that the course is shorter and the mortality greater. These conclusions may be inaccurate, however, as it is possible that they are based on the severe cases alone, the milder cases having escaped notice. The pathological changes in the intestines are, as a rule, insignificant. The contrast between them and the severity of the general symptoms is striking. The probable explanation is that in the infant as in the fœtus, but to a less degree, the disease is a general rather than a local infection.

The serum reaction occurs in infantile as in adult typhoid. There are no data as to whether or not it occurs in fœtal typhoid.

Immunity.—The agglutinating power may or may not be present in the blood of infants born of a woman with typhoid. If present, it is transmitted from the mother to the child through the placenta. It is possible, however, that it may be formed in the child in response to toxins transmitted through the placenta. The agglutinating principle can pass through the normal placenta. Part of it, however, is arrested in the passage. Whether or not it is transmitted seems to depend on the strength of the agglutinating power in the maternal blood and the length of time during which the placenta is exposed to it.

It may be transmitted to the nursling through the milk. It may appear in the infant's blood in less than twenty-four hours. It lasts but a few days after the cessation of nursing. It is always weaker in the milk than in the maternal blood and always weaker in the infant's blood than in the milk. This weakening of the agglutinating power is due to the obstruction to its passage in the mammary gland and in the nursling's digestive tract. The chief factor governing transmission is the intensity of the power in the maternal blood. A subordinate but important factor is some unknown condition in the digestive tract. If the power in the maternal blood is weak and the obstacles great it may not be transmitted.

Symptoms.—The symptoms are usually very obscure in children. Vomiting and sometimes diarrhœa are the earliest symptoms. In other cases constipation may be an early symptom. The so-called pea-soup diarrhœa seen in adults and older children is rarely met with in young infants. Convulsions frequently usher in an attack of typhoid fever.

In older children, those able to complain will usually give subjective symptoms, which may aid materially in making the diagnosis. A constant headache, for example, will always show a severe form of infection, and may be the only symptom which will be constant.

The period of incubation varies from five to fourteen days. We can safely say it is rare for the period of incubation to extend over three weeks.

The Temperature.—The temperature is one of the main indications of typhoid. It rises at night and falls in the morning, the morning fall being less and the evening rise greater for the first week (step-laddder type) until the maximum is reached. The temperature shows fairly regular oscillations, morning fall and evening rise for about a week. It then returns to normal at the end of the third, sometimes at the end of the fourth or fifth week. The temperature drops by lysis, never by crisis.

Secondary fever is rare in children. It is not unusual to find a mild form of typhoid terminating normally at the end of two weeks.

During the second week of the disease when the temperature remains fairly constant, the diagnosis will be much easier, although a positive diagnosis from the temperature alone should not be made. The temperature in a mild form of typhoid in an infant varies between 101° and 103° F. during the first week, or even the second week, of the disease. Severe cases may show a temperature of 105° F., or even higher, during the first week of the illness. The temperature may show peculiar variations. We may have a sudden rise extending over a period of six weeks instead of three weeks. This prolonged pyrexia sometimes denotes complications. If the temperature has ranged between 103°, 104°, or 105° F., and suddenly drops to normal or subnormal, then we must suspect either an internal hæmorrhage or look for a perforation. Sudden variations in the temperature, as a very sudden rise or fall, must always be looked upon with suspicion. There is no crisis in typhoid as there is in pneumonia.

The Pulse.—The pulse is usually increased in frequency and ranges between 130 and 160 per minute. The force and rhythm are good unless some complication arises. The pulse is usually small and compressible, and there is very low tension in fatal forms of the disease.

The Tongue.—The tongue is coated with a whitish, more rarely a brownish, fur. This coating extends down the center, although the whole tongue may be covered. The mouth appears very dry, and the patient sometimes complains of intense thirst.

The abdomen is usually distended with gas and there is marked tympanites on percussion. Gurgling and tenderness on palpation in the ileocæcal region is not to be looked upon as an important symptom.

The Spleen.—The spleen cannot be relied upon as a diagnostic aid in children. While it may be enlarged in some instances, we frequently find that it is not palpable in many cases of severe typhoid.

Coughs and Bronchial Catarrh.—One of the earliest symptoms in typhoid is bronchitis. In the beginning when we have but cough and fever the diagnosis will be quite difficult. Typhoid frequently simulates pneumonia.

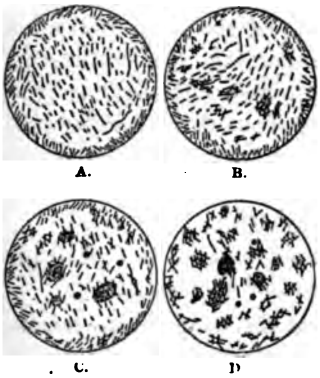

Fig. 213.—Stages in Widal Reaction. (After Robin.)

The Nervous System.—In profound toxicity the nervous symptoms present will be muttering, delirium, and a semi-comatose condition. Not infrequently rigidity of the muscles of the neck is present, so that the differential diagnosis from meningitis will be difficult. The nervous symptoms frequently resemble those seen in tubercular meningitis. Acute tuberculosis may sometimes resemble typhoid.

Extreme Emaciation. — Children frequently show emaciation during typhoid for the following reasons:—

1. The constant fever.
2. The low vitality owing to malnutrition.
3. The system being constantly drained when diarrhœa exists.

Diagnosis.—In every case of fever in which a diagnosis cannot be made, a drop of blood should be examined for the presence of the Widal reaction. This reaction is always a trustworthy evidence of the presence of typhoid, and a negative reaction later than the tenth day is strong but not absolutely convincing evidence of the absence of typhoid. The test is of greater value in the case of an infant than an adult, as we can exclude the occurrence of a previous attack. Some writers state that the reaction is seen earlier in children than in adults.

It should not, however, be the only means of making a diagnosis. It is well known that this reaction will occur months and sometimes years after the patient has recovered from typhoid, hence great caution should be used in relying on this diagnostic measure exclusively.

Widal Test for the Diagnosis of Typhoid Fever.[1]—The investigations of Grüber, Widal, and others, published in 1896, showed that the blood of persons, suffering from or having recently had typhoid fever, contains, as a rule, after the fifth day of the disease, substances which, when added to a broth culture of the typhoid bacilli, arrest the characteristic movements of these organisms and cause them to become clumped together in masses.

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[1] This method is described by the New York Health Department.

The results of a very large number of examinations made here in New York and elsewhere show, that if the blood contains agglutinating substances in sufficient amount to cause a prompt and marked reaction, when one part of serum or blood solution is added to 10 parts of a broth culture of the typhoid bacillus, the presence of a previous or existing typhoid infection may be considered as extremely probable, and that if these substances are present in such an amount as promptly to produce the reaction, when 1 part of serum or dried blood solution is added to 20 parts of the culture, the presence of a previous or existing typhoid infection may, for diagnostic purposes, be practically considered as established.

In estimating the diagnostic value of a negative result from this test, we must remember that the reaction is rarely, if ever, present until at least four days after the appearance of symptoms; that it is occasionally absent in cases of typhoid fever until the third or fourth week, or even until convalescence is established; that when developed it may disappear after a few days, and that no definite relation between the severity of the disease and the degree and time of development of the substances causing the reaction has been established. For these reasons a single negative result in any suspected case only renders doubtful the existence of typhoid fever. In those cases in which the reaction is absent after the ninth day, it may be reasonably assumed that the large majority will not prove to be typhoid fever, and the absence of the reaction in all of several different cases of a suspected group, or after repeated examinations in any single case, affords evidence of very decided value in excluding the diagnosis of typhoid fever.

Directions for Preparing Specimens of Blood.—The skin covering the tip of the finger is thoroughly cleansed and then pricked with a clean needle deeply enough to cause several drops of blood to exude. Two large drops are then placed on the glass slide, one near either end, and allowed to dry without being spread out on the surface of the slide. After they have dried, the slide is placed in the holder and returned in the addressed envelope to a culture station, or mailed to the laboratory.

The diazo reaction should be looked upon as a valuable aid in making the diagnosis. It is described in detail in the chapter on "Urine," page 923.

The Eruption.—The eruption consists of lenticular-shaped, rose-colored spots. They are small and slightly elevated. These rose-colored spots appear at the beginning of the second week. The eruption lasts about ten days, although the spots last from two to three days and are succeeded by a new crop. They are seen on the thorax and abdomen, although at times over the whole body.

Leucopænia if present strongly supports the diagnosis of typhoid. In the International Clinics 1909, I report a series of cases in which the white blood cells ranged between 4000-6000 at the beginning of the disease.

Differential Diagnosis.—*Malaria* frequently resembles typhoid. A differential diagnosis can easily be made by an examination of a drop of blood for the presence of plasmodia.

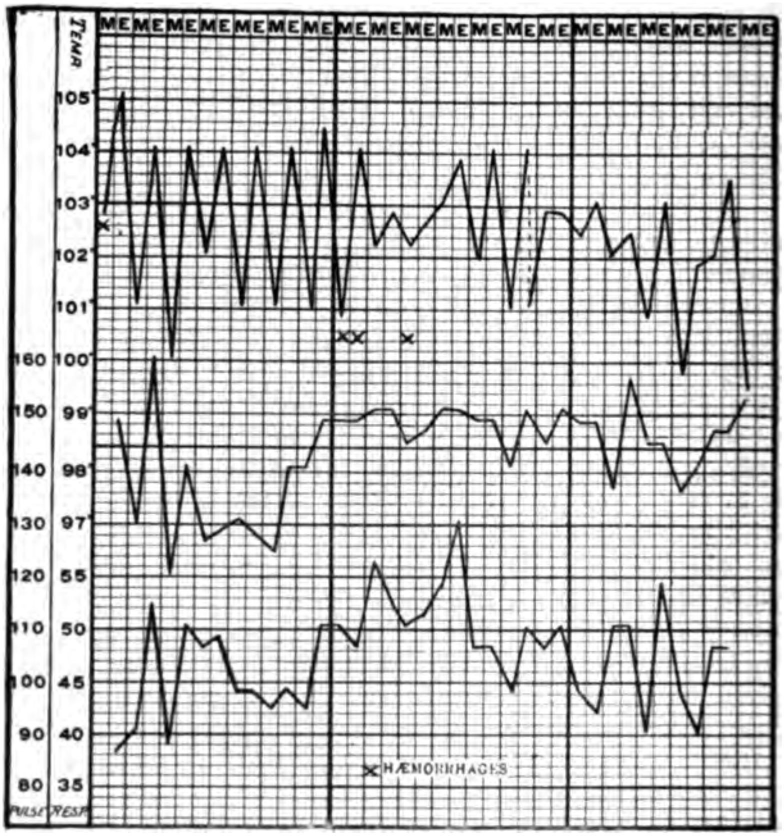

Fig. 214.—Typhoid Fever.—Severe hæmorrhages. Fatal result. (Original.)

The administration of quinine is a diagnostic test of practical importance. An *irregular or intermittent fever which yields promptly to quinine is certainly not typhoid.* In malaria, the temperature will be found to touch normal at some time in the twenty-four hours.

Cholera Infantum.—Many cases of supposed cholera infantum frequently prove to be typhoid fever. I have seen many cases in midsummer with a temperature of 102° F., having roseola, with vomiting and diarrhœa. In such cases the diagnosis depends on the presence of the Widal reaction.

When diarrhœal symptoms and fever are present in the early stages of typhoid fever it is extremely difficult to make a diagnosis. This applies especially to the first week of the disease before a Widal reaction can be made. I have invariably examined the urine for the presence of indican (see page 880). When the symptoms are due to intestinal autointoxication or fermentative conditions in the intestine, then a positive indican reaction is present. If the diazo-reaction is absent and indican present, we can exclude typhoid fever.

Internal Hæmorrhages.—Holt reports a series of 946 collected cases in which hæmorrhage occurred in 30 cases, about 3 per cent. The majority of these cases were over 10 years of age. I have frequently seen hæmorrhages in children between 5 and 10 years; never under 5 years.

CASE I.—A case of typhoid in a boy 16 years old, seen in consultation with Dr. Rayewsky, had a series of hæmorrhages which ended fatally. The origin of this case was supposed to be an infection from eating raw oysters. The boy was a telegraph messenger and ate some oysters in the street, after which he showed signs of fever, and intestinal symptoms. No other etiological factor was ascertained. The boy was in good health and suddenly became ill after eating this meal of oysters. Symptoms of gastric fever, with diarrhœa; temperature of 101° to 103° F. gradually appeared. The symptoms increased from day to day until delirium and general coma were present. The fever was difficult to control in spite of cold tub bathing. The boy weakened from constant pyrexia—appeared to convalesce—when a severe hæmorrhage occurred. An ice-bag was laid over the abdomen, and opium given internally. The colon was flushed with alum and water. Nothing seemed to control the bleeding.

CASE II.—A girl, 10 years old, was seen in consultation with Dr. H. Weinstein. She had been sick about three weeks when seen by me. She was apparently convalescing when she had a hæmorrhage of a very alarming nature. The doctor told me the child lost more than one pint of blood. The pulse was about 130 and very feeble in character. The child was deathly pale and seemed to be in collapse. Whisky and strychnine were ordered as restoratives. The child complained of chills and was thoroughly wrapped in warm blankets and hot-water bottles were applied to her feet. A teaspoonful of powered alum added to a pint of cold water was injected into the rectum and colon. Paregoric in 15 drop doses was ordered every hour. The nurse was instructed to watch the pupils and the pulse and to discontinue the drug as soon as the systemic effect of the paregoric was manifested. Ice-cream was ordered internally and small pellets of cracked ice. The child recovered after careful dietetic and restorative treatment.

Intestinal Perforation.—Intestinal perforation is very rare. It is met with in about 1 per cent. of all cases. A sudden fall in the temperature with collapse, rarely vomiting, followed by tympanites, are symptoms indicating perforation.

Laparotomy When Perforation Occurs.—The skill of the surgeon will frequently save life when hæmorrhages occur. In a case of typhoid which progresses favorably during the third and fourth week, a sudden collapse should be an indication for an immediate operation. I have seen death follow a case of this kind. These cases are usually hopeless and our only chance consists in resorting to an immediate operation.

Complications.—*Aphasia* is occasionally met with. Morse reported 21 cases. *Insanity* is rarely met with as a sequel to typhoid. *Chorea* is frequently seen. I have met with a case having a severe form of choreiform movements which lasted more than a year, following the attack of typhoid.

Otitis media is frequently met with in children. It is very important to watch the ears during an attack of typhoid.

Less frequent complications are gangrenous inflammation of the mouth or genitals, pericarditis, endocarditis, peritonitis, pyæmia, abscesses, and furuncles. Abscess of the liver has been reported by Bokai. Pulmonary tuberculosis has been known to follow typhoid.

Prognosis and Course.—The prognosis is more favorable in children than in adults. Tympanites, if accompanied by vomiting, is a bad sign. When there is general depression and nervous symptoms then the prognosis is bad. Singultus is usually a bad sign. Bleeding should always be looked upon, especially if repeated, as a bad sign. The strength of the child, its assimilation of food, and the condition of the heart should be the means of arriving at the proper prognosis. Complications should always be regarded as a serious matter. The prognosis is grave if the child has passed through a typhoid and is in an exhausted condition, and unable to cope with a new complication. Baginsky states that in a series of 68 cases treated by him in the hospital, 6 died, a mortality of 8.8 per cent.

In children typhoid may terminate in two weeks. It may extend over three weeks or even four weeks. Mild cases of typhoid resemble an attack of acute gastric fever. Cases are occasionally seen in which the disease terminates abruptly within ten days. As a rule older children show the adult type of fever and the disease runs its course of three, four, or six weeks. Infantile typhoid may show severe gastric symptoms, such as vomiting, and very little diarrhœa. The course, therefore, is peculiar to infants and entirely different from that seen in the older child.

The following case was seen by me some time ago. A woman, 35 years of age, was taken ill with typhoid fever of a very severe type. She nursed her infant during the first week of her fever. The infant was then 1 year old. The physician ordered the infant weaned. About one week later the infant had fever, vomiting, and diarrhœa. An examination of the blood gave a positive Widal reaction. The infant recovered in about fifteen days. The mother died of hemorrhages during the third week of her illness.

Treatment.—The specific nature of the disease due to the infection of a specific germ, has caused investigators to seek a typhoid antitoxin. As yet no definite progress has been made in this direction, although investigators have from time to time announced the discovery of a healing serum.[1] In the absence of a specific serum we must confine ourselves to the treatment of indications. In the beginning a good dose of calomel, $^1/_2$ to 1 grain, repeated several times a day, is indicated.

Fever Treatment.—The best antipyretic is the cold bath and cold pack. The bath must be properly given to be effective. A large bath-tub should be procured, large enough to hold the child at full length. This should be half-filled with water at a temperature of 90° F. Cold water or, in summer, ice should be added until the temperature is gradually reduced to 70° F. This is an agreeable method, as we avoid the sudden shock so dreaded by children when suddenly immersed in cold water. The duration of the bath should be from three to five minutes.

The temperature of the child should be taken before and after the bath. The child's body should be rubbed continuously while in the bath so as to stimulate the circulation, especially so when the water is cool. If the child's pulse is feeble, administer a stimulant such as hot coffee or whisky before the bath. Watch the pulse carefully, and if the slightest sign of weakness is noted, remove the child immediately from the bath and place in bed with hot-water bottles to its feet. The bath should be repeated every three or four hours or oftener, if the temperature requires it. If the temperature is not modified lower the temperature of the bath.

Antipyretic drugs, such as napthaline, benzoate of soda, quinine, antipyrin, antifebrin, phenacetin, and lactophenin, are useless in combating fever when compared to cold baths and cold packs. All antipyretic drugs of the coal-tar series are such cardiac depressants that they should never be prescribed without combining them with camphor or musk. Of all antipyretic drugs I prefer phenacetin. One of the best antipyretic measures is the injection of several pints of cold saline solution through a catheter into the colon. Too much hydrostatic pressure should not be used. The irrigator should be held about one foot over the child's body; the temperature of the water should be between 60° and 70° F. Flushing the colon with cool saline solution may be repeated every three or four hours if a good effect is apparent. When great exhaustion and a weak pulse exist, then $^1/_2$ teaspoonful or a teaspoonful of alcohol may be added to the irrigation. The main point to remember in the treatment is to support the child so that the strength will be maintained and the heart's action not impaired. With this object in view nothing is better than restoring vitality by the aid of concentrated food. When there is great exhaustion the administration of a normal salt solution per rectum, or its use by hypodermoclysis,[2] should be remembered. One or two pints of saline solution administered per rectum, with the hips elevated, is frequently the means of stimulating diuresis, thus eliminating the poisons of the toxins through the kidneys. Great care is required in giving the saline in the form of hypodermoclysis. The strictest asepsis should be maintained. A large aspirating needle attached to a fountain syringe (Fig. 202) is well adapted in an emergency. These saline injections may be repeated every six or twelve hours if required.

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[1] Einhorn, of New York, has reported beneficial results from the use of antityphoid serum.

[2] This is illustrated in detail in the chapter on "Scarlet Fever Treatment."

Hygienic Measures.—Owing to the infectious nature of the discharges passing from a typhoid patient, the prime requisite is the thorough disinfection of all stools and urine. If there is cough or sputum, the same must also be thoroughly disinfected. In fact all discharges should be received in a vessel containing a strong solution of javelle water (chlorinated lime) or a 5 per cent. carbolic solution. A strong solution of copperas should be thrown into the toilet from time to time while a typhoid patient is in the house. All bed linen, handkerchiefs, and dishes coming in contact with the patient should be soaked in a bichloride solution for at least one-half hour before being washed. *Sunlight* is of the greatest importance in a room having a typhoid patient. We can do more disinfection with sunlight and fresh air than we can with medication.

The Food.—All food must be liquid; no solid food should be allowed. In the beginning whey, strained soups, and broths should be ordered; later strained gruels, cocoa, acorn cocoa, and chocolate may be given at intervals of two or three hours. In some cases albumin water, made by beating the raw whites of two eggs with sugar and water, is useful. I frequently give the whites of six eggs per day. Milk, buttermilk, kumyss, whey, or junket may be given, alternating with soups and broths. When stimulation is required the yolk of egg can be combined with sherry or Tokay wine. When drugs are given it is best to combine them with soups or broths. When severe dyspeptic symptoms exist, predigested milk, peptonized with the aid of pancreatin and soda, must not be forgotten. When milk idiosyncrasies exist, then the yolk of a raw egg added to barley water, rice water, or almond milk (made by blanching almonds with hot water) can be substituted for milk. When thirst exists, unfermented grape juice or water acidulated with dilute phosphoric acid or dilute hydrochloric acid is very grateful. Ten drops of either dilute acid can be added to a tumblerful of sweetened water, and this given whenever the child is thirsty. These acids have a very good effect on febrile affections, and are especially indicated when diarrhœa exists.

Feeding in Convalescence.—The great danger of hæmorrhage should always be borne in mind; hence it is advisable to abstain from giving solid food for several weeks after convalescence is thoroughly established. Soups thickened with sago, farina or barley, and pea and lentil soups can be given. The yolk of a raw egg can be added to the soup. Milk may be thickened with zwieback. The main diet should be milk and cocoa or chocolate.

Somatose may be added to milk or soup. Plasmon is also beneficial. Bovinine, liquid peptonoids, panopeptone, eucasin, or tropon, in teaspoonful doses added to milk, are very valuable during the convalescent period. Valentine's meat juice given in milk or soup is nutritious, or Mosquera's liquid beef (made by Parke, Davis & Co.) can be added to each soup or milk-feeding.

Drug Treatment.—If cerebral symptoms exist, then an ice-bag should be applied to the head. When there is severe restlessness and insomnia, with twitchings of the muscles, then injections of 3 to 5 grains of chloral hydrate should be tried per rectum. These injections are best given in starch water. Five-grain doses of sulphonal or trional, repeated in two hours if necessary, is sometimes very effectual. If there is no effect, then $^{1}/_{24}$ grain of morphine may be administered hypodermically for a child 2 years old.

If the child is 1 year old, then $^{1}/_{48}$ grain may be given, and repeated in several hours, if necessary. The greatest care must be maintained if hæmorrhage exists.

Bismuth is a very valuable drug; the subnitrate in 5 to 10-grain doses, and the beta-naphthol, in 5 to 10-grain doses, may be repeated every few hours as an antifermentative.

Tannalbin or tannigen, in doses of 5 to 15 grains, can also be given every two hours. If the hæmorrhage is very severe, then an injection containing 30 drops of Monsell's solution added to a quart of cool water, or a teaspoonful of alum, may be added to a pint of water. These injections can be repeated every three or four hours until the hæmorrhage ceases. Ice-bags should be kept continuously on the abdomen at the slightest sign of hæmorrhage.

Guaiacol carbonate, in 5 to 10-grain doses, repeated every three or four hours, is a very good antipyretic. Creosote carbonate, 1 drop for each year; for a child 1 year old, 1 drop; for a child 5 years old, 5 drops, three times a day, is one of the best intestinal antiseptics.

When severe tenesmus, associated with flatulence and very loose stools, exists, then the best remedy will be 1 or 2-drop doses of turpentine, combined with several drops of paregoric. The oleoresin of turpentine in 1 or 2-grain doses, can be combined with $^{1}/_{10}$ grain of extract of opium for a child, 5 years old, in the form of a suppository. This can be repeated several times a day if the symptoms are not improving.

Prophylaxis.—The injection of typhoid vaccine as a prophylactic has been described in Part VII, page 452.

CHAPTER XIII.

ERYSIPELAS.

This is an acute infectious and contagious disease. It is characterized by an inflammatory condition of the skin, the subcutaneous tissue, the lymph spaces, and the lymph vessels.

Etiology and Bacteriology.—We are indebted to Fehleisen for a study of the bacteriology of this disease. Fehleisen found the streptococcus present, so that it is positively identified as the cause of the same. The disease may also originate from a staphylococcus aureus.

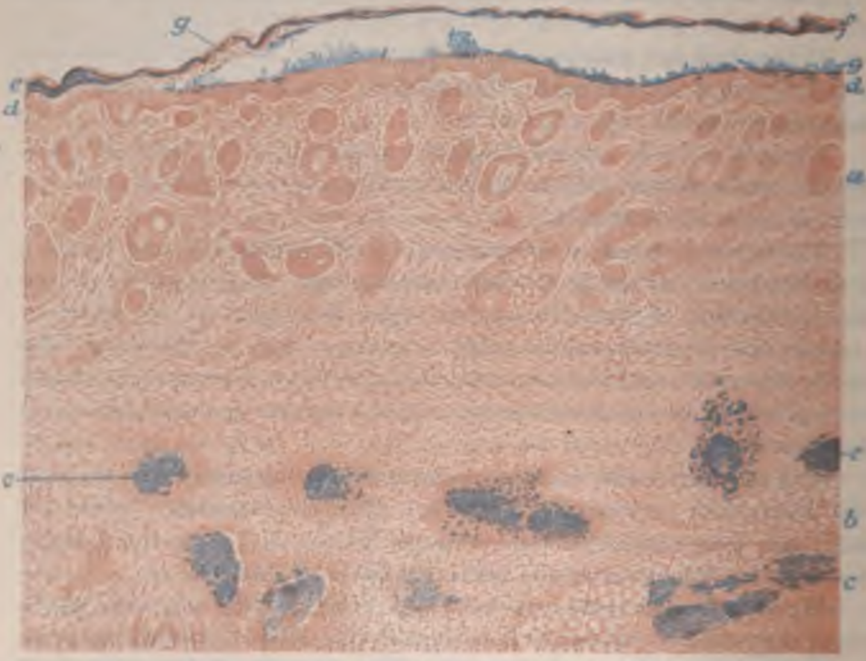

Fig. 215.—Ectogenous Streptococcus Infection. Eczema and erysipelas of the scalp in a child 1 month old. (Bacteria carmine stain); (*a*) cutis; (*b*) subcutis; (*c*) lymph vessels filled with streptococci, surrounded by an inflammatory area; (*d*) epithelial covering; (*e*, *f*) elevated horny layer; (*g*) streptococci. X 50. (Ziegler.)

The invasion of the micro-organism takes place through an abrasion of the skin caused by scratching with a dirty finger-nail. It is very rarely epidemic, but can spread easily from patient to patient. A case of erysipelas is a source of great danger in a hospital ward.

Pathology.—There is an infiltration of the tissues and they are usually swollen from an accumulation of serum. Under the microscope we can find pus cells in the serum. When this condition is noted abscesses will be found. In other cases gangrene will be present. There is nothing characteristic found in the lungs, heart, kidneys, spleen, or liver which would be distinctly pathognomonic. The usual conditions found in sepsis are seen here.

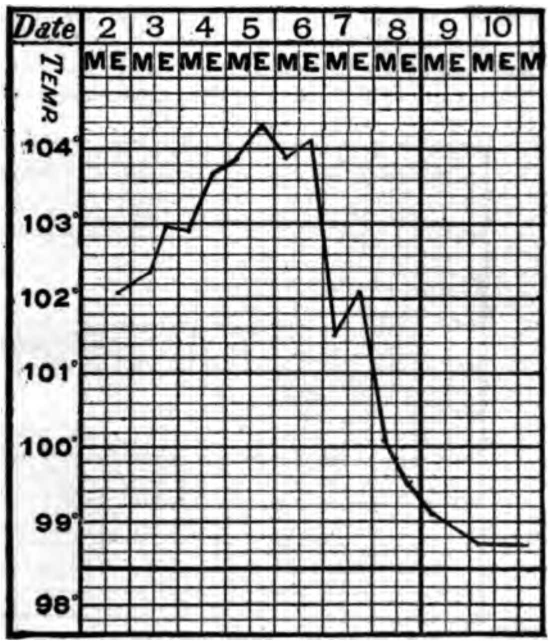

Fig. 216.—Fever Curve in Facial Erysipelas. (Original.)

Pneumonia is sometimes met with as a complication.

Symptoms. — The usual type of erysipelas met with in children is known as erysipelas migrans. This is known as the wandering type because it spreads rapidly from diseased to healthy parts. The temperature in the beginning varies from 102° to 103° F., and may rise to 104° or 105° F. Septic cases usually show a much lower temperature. I have seen cases of a decided septic nature in which the temperature was 99° F. for several days. The pulse-rate varies between 120 and 150. The flush is of a deep red color and usually very shining. The following case seen by me in consultation with Dr. B. Brodski will illustrate severe erysipelas:—

Child M., 6 years old, suffered with severe coryza from acute rhinitis. There was an artificial eczema due to excoriation around the nose. The intense itching caused the child to scratch the parts and when the attending physician saw this case he found a well-defined erysipelas. Local remedies, such as lead and opium wash, and warm bichloride were used. The erysipelas spread over the face and at this time involved the eyelids so that the eyes were tightly closed. The forehead, nose, and cheeks were involved. This was the fifth day of the disease.

Ten cubic centimeters of antistreptococcus serum were injected. The temperature at the time of injection was 103° F.; the following day the skin seemed to desquamate and lose its fiery red appearance. I also advised thorough inunctions of unguentum Credé, three times a day. With the aid of restoratives and good nutrition the case recovered in about six days after the above treatment was commenced. No complication ensued, although at one time meningitis was suspected.

Another case equally instructive was seen by me in consultation with Dr. Henry M. Groehl:—

Baby K., 1 year, was seen on her fifth day of illness by Dr. Groehl, who found a well-marked case of erysipelas involving both the lower extremities. The temperature was 104 $^{2}/_{5}$° F. The child was very restless. The flush spread to the back and over the abdomen. He ordered locally lead and opium wash to cool the surface, and internally he gave calomel and phenacetin with sparteine.

On the sixth day the child was much improved. Temperature fell to 99° F., pulse was good. On the seventh day there was a marked change for the worse. The temperature still remained at 99° F., the pulse was rapid and feeble; there was continuous vomiting. The inflammation suddenly spread from the abdomen to the chest, almost covering the child. The appearance was decidedly septic. The child vomited long after all drinks by the mouth had been stopped. In fact, long after rectal feeding had been commenced the vomiting persisted.

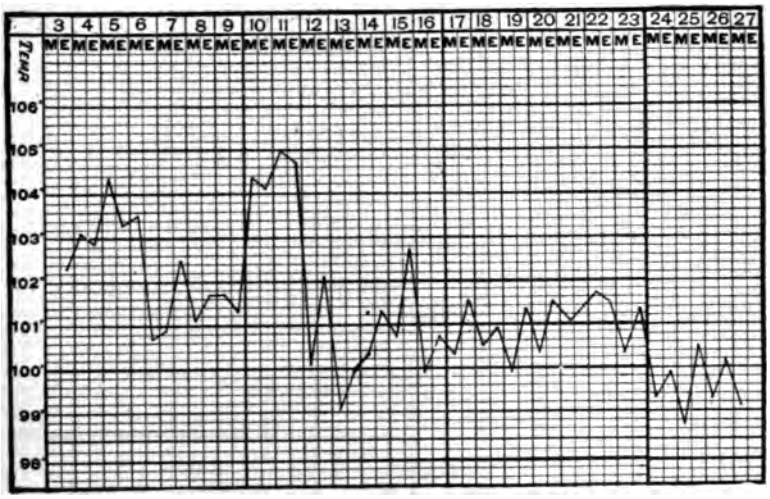

Fig. 217.—Fever Curve in Phlegmonous Erysipelas. (Original.)

On the eighth day of the illness I saw the case, and after going over the history and treatment, recommended injections of 10 cubic centimeters of anti-streptococcus serum. This was injected in the usual aseptic manner, just as we inject antitoxin: On the evening of the same day of the injection there was no reaction. The child continued the same.

The following day, about three hours before the exitus lethalis, the body was covered with ecchymotic spots. The various parts of the body were covered with discolorations, some of them resembled the colors of the rainbow.

Complications.—The œdema usually seen on the skin is a very fatal complication in erysipelas affecting the air passages. In such cases œdema of the glottis will result fatally.

Prognosis.—This depends upon the time when the case is first seen and chiefly upon the condition of the child at the time of the infection. If the child is well nourished and has been breast-fed, the prognosis is good.

Treatment.—A dose of rhubarb and soda or 5 to 10 grains of phosphate of soda should be given. The destructive tendency of the pathogenic bacteria on the blood should be remembered; hence large quantities of normal saline solution should be given, by injection, into the colon. The strictest hygienic measures must be used. The internal administration of active diuretics, such as spirits nitr. dulc., is indicated. The strength of the child should be supported with proper food, so that it can throw off the poison. The most effectual treatment is the local treatment, especially if fever exists.

Local Treatment.—Pure alcohol in which bichloride of mercury is dissolved should be applied continuously by saturating absorbent cotton and laying the same over the erysipelatous flush:—

℞ Alcohol	2000 parts
Bichloride of mercury	1 part

In some cases lead and opium wash is very cooling and will remove the heat from the affected parts.

Oil silk or rubber tissue should cover the wet application to prevent evaporation. The inunction of a 10 per cent. ichthyol ointment has been tried by me with some success. I regard the use of Credé ointment as a very efficacious remedy.

Collargolum (Soluble Metallic Silver).—In septic scarlet fever and in severe types of erysipelas in which a profound toxæmia exists, rectal injections consisting of collargolum 2¼ to 4½ grains and aq. dest. 2½ ounces are useful.

Magnesium Sulphate (Epsom Salt).—In severe cellulitis and erysipelatous inflammations a solution of

℞ Magnesia sulphate	2 drachms
Aqua	16 ounces

is to be applied as a lotion.

Excellent results have been seen by me after several days' application in severe cases of erysipelas at the Willard Parker Hospital. Associated with this local treatment active catharsis and liquid diet with plenty of water internally and fruit juices are indicated.

Serum Treatment.—Since the streptococcus has been found to be the etiological factor in erysipelas, the most plausible treatment has been the antistreptococcus serum. The clinical cases described in this chapter show very good results from the serum treatment. I have seen specific results after using 10 to 20 cubic centimeters of this serum, and strongly advise the use of the same in this disease.[1]

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[1] Read also clinical report of case of erysipelas complicating varicella in chapter on "Varicella," page **636**.

CHAPTER XIV.

MALARIAL FEVER (INTERMITTENT FEVER—PALUDAL FEVER—AGUE).

THIS is a specific infectious disease due to the invasion of a distinct germ belonging to the class of protozoa. It is known as the plasmodium malariæ. "The disease is contracted by the inoculation of the human subject by the infected mosquito. The plasmodium malariæ passes through one cycle of its development in the body of a variety of the mosquito known as the anopheles cleviger."

We find this disease in Southern Russia and in Italy; in our own Southern States as well. In the North of Europe and the North of America it is rarely found. The disease is usually seen in swampy regions and where bad drainage exists. It is also seen in the tropics. The influence of the weather is interesting. While in summer, spring, and fall cases occur frequently, in extremely cold weather they are very rare.

Bacteriology and Etiology.—Laveran, in 1880, discovered the specific germ which causes this disease in the blood of infected individuals. In America, Councilman, Abbott, Osler, and many others have confirmed Laveran's observations. There are several types of fever.

First.—The middle forms: *(a)* tertian, double tertian (quotidian); *(b)* quartan fever and its combinations.

Second.—The more severe, often more or less irregular fevers which occur in America and in Italy, most commonly at the end of the summer and fall, called the æstivo-autumnal fever of the Italians. The tropical malaria of the Germans. This type of fever includes the so-called remittent malarial fevers as well as most of the cases of pernicious malaria and other malarial cachexiæ.

Tertian Fever.—Golgi's description and differentiation of the microorganism of the tertian and quartan type of malaria have remained practically unassailed. "If we examine the blood from a case of tertian fever just after the paroxysm, we find in certain of the red blood-corpuscles small, round, colorless bodies which appear to have a slight depression in the center, and when stained in dry specimens show a paler central area with a darker periphery. These bodies examined in the fresh specimen show active amœboid movements. A few hours later the organism will be found to have increased somewhat in size, and to contain a few, fine, brownish pigment granules which dance actively under the eye, the motion probably being due to undulatory movements in the protoplasm. On the day between the paroxysms the bodies will be found to have about half-filled the red corpuscles. They are still actively amœboid, and the number of pigment granules has considerably increased. The red corpuscle at this stage will be seen to be a trifle larger than its unaffected neighbors, and to be considerably decolorized. On the day of the paroxysm the organism has entirely filled and almost destroyed the red blood-corpuscle, which is represented only by a faint pale rim about the full-grown parasite, if, indeed, it has not entirely disappeared. The pigment granules may show at this stage a very active motion, but the amœboid movements of the organism as a whole are but little marked. At the time of the paroxysm an interesting change takes place; the pigment gathers together in a more or less solid clump, usually in the center of the organism, while the rest of the protoplasm looks somewhat granular and shows a suggestion of lines radiating outward from the center. This appearance gradually changes, the lines becoming more distinct, until finally we see the central clump of pigment surrounded by from fifteen to twenty small ovoid or round glistening segments, each one having a central more refractive spot, and resembling strongly the hyaline bodies which we see immediately following the chill. This segmentation of the organism is always coincident with the paroxysm, and the presence of the blood of a segmenting body is a sure indication that the paroxysm is present, or is about to occur. Immediately following the paroxysm fresh hyaline bodies appear in the red corpuscles. Though the invasion of the corpuscles by these fresh segments has never been actually observed, the evidence that this occurs is so strong that we can safely accept it as a fact. Besides these forms we see not infrequently small or large extra cellular pigmented bodies; that is, organisms resembling exactly those within the red blood-corpuscles, excepting that they are free in the blood current.

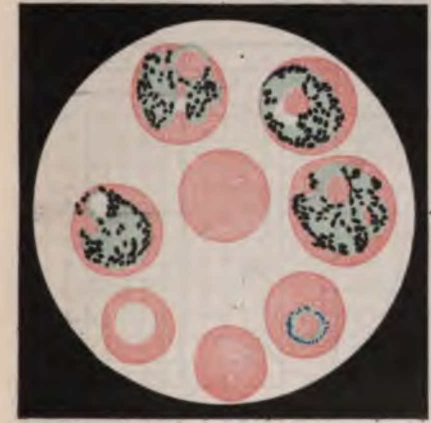

Fig. 218.—Malaria Plasmodia; Tertian Type. Plehn-Chenzinsky's Stain. X 1000.

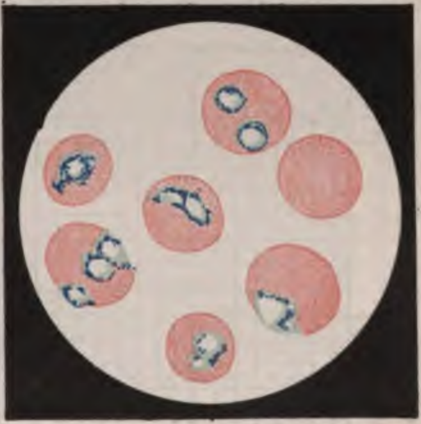

Fig. 219.—Malaria Plasmodia; Tropical Form. Romanowsky-Nocht Stain. X 1000.

These may be seen at times to break up into several smaller bodies, while at other times they may show a long, tail-like, non-motile process containing sometimes a few pigment granules. They are probably organisms which have escaped from the red corpuscles, or full-grown bodies which have broken up; they are considered to be degenerative forms. At times also we find the so-called flagellate bodies. Their development from the pigmented organism may indeed be observed, the pigment of the full-grown body becoming very actively motile, then collecting in the center of the organism, while several long, thread-like flagella burst out of the body and move actively about among the surrounding corpuscles. Sometimes we may see one of these flagella which has broken away from the organism and is moving rapidly through the field. This is also thought by the Italians to be a degenerative process. The characteristics of this form of organism, which is observed in tertian fever alone, are so marked that with a little study of the parasite one can make a definite diagnosis of the type of fever from an examination of the blood alone.

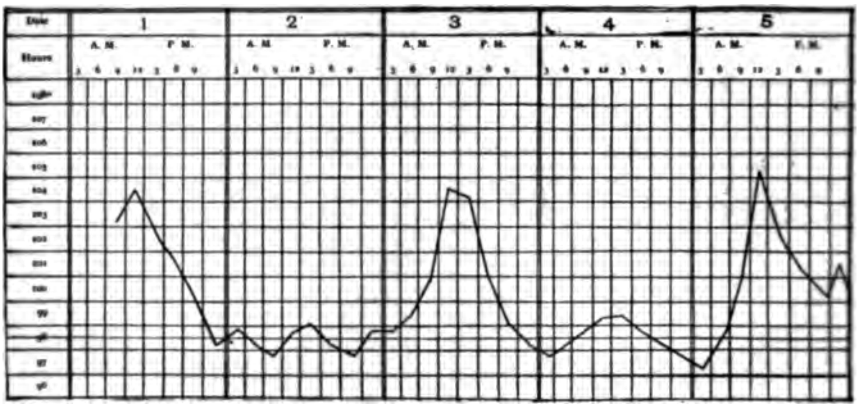

Fig. 220.—Tertian Fever (Intermittent Fever). Typical malarial temperature, usually seen in the spring and early summer. Onset with vomiting, diarrhœa and chills, accompanied by a well-marked rigor, and coldness of the extremities. (Original.)

The Parasite of Quartan Fever.—"Quartan fever is not at all common in this country, but in the few cases which the writer has observed the organisms differ distinctly from the tertian parasite, and show accurately the characteristics described by Golgi. Here the first stage of the organism is similar to that observed in tertian fever, excepting that the amœboid movements are not so active. As the body develops, the rods and clumps of pigments are larger and darker than those in tertian fever, while the amœboid movements of the organism are relatively slight. The full-grown forms are materially smaller than in tertian fever, while the red blood-corpuscles, instead of being expanded and decolorized, appear at times shrunken about the body, and of a somewhat deeper old-brass color (messingfarbe). In segmentation the organism divides into from six to ten different parts instead of twenty to thirty, as in the tertian form.

The Organisms of the Æstivo-autumnal Fevers.—"The organisms associated with the æstivo-autumnal fevers have been carefully studied, but much remains to be done, particularly in this country.

"There is some difference of opinion as to whether there are not two types of organism associated with these fevers. Some Italian observers divide them into the quotidian and the malignant tertian organisms. The differences made out by the Italians are, however, very slight, and have not been observed in this country. In the first place we see just after the paroxysm small hyaline bodies which may or may not be actively amœboid; these can sometimes be distinguished in that they are generally somewhat smaller and have oftentimes a characteristic ring-like appearance. In the early stages—during the first week, for instance—of an attack of this form, we may see only the hyaline, unpigmented forms; but commonly, if we observe carefully, we may see some time after the exacerbation of temperature, shortly before the beginning of another, bodies which are a trifle larger than these smallest hyaline forms and which contain one or two very minute pigment granules lying near the periphery. Just before or during the paroxysm we may see bodies with a small central clump of motile or non-motile pigment granules lying usually in cells which are more or less shrunken and crumpled, and of a deeper color than the normal corpuscles (messingfarbe). These bodies are generally not half as large as the red corpuscles. After the first week or ten days of the disease, or after treatment has been begun, we see, however, certain very characteristic and easily recognizable forms which are only seen with this type of fever. These are, first, round or ovoid bodies about the size of a red corpuscle, a little smaller or a little larger, with clear, rather highly refractive, waxy-looking proto-

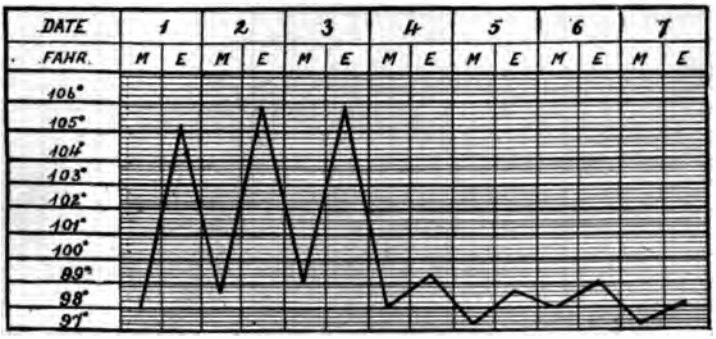

Fig. 221.—Quartan Fever (Double Tertian). Onset with vomiting and convulsions. Convulsions usually accompany each paroxysm. Restlessness associated with cyanosis and coldness of extremities. These cases are usually seen in the late autumn. (Original.)

plasm, and coarse dark pigment granules, which are usually collected in a ring or a mass in the center of the organism. The granules are usually very slightly motile. At one side of the body we often see a small bib-like attachment which may show a slightly yellowish color. On examination this proves to be the remains of the red blood-corpuscles in which the organism has developed. In association with these are seen crescentic bodies, the protoplasm of which shows the same characteristics as that in the forms above described, while the pigment is collected in the middle in a similar ring or bunch, and is but slightly motile. On the concave side of these crescents one may also often see a bib-like attachment, just as in the ovoid forms. At times during the examination of the fresh specimen we may see the change from an ovoid body into a crescent take place. The development of these forms from the hyaline bodies can be followed out on careful observation. They are thought by some to be a resting stage of the organism. Segmenting bodies are almost never seen in the circulating blood of this form of malarial fever, though the presence of the round intracellular bodies with central pigment is a sure sign that segmentation is going on elsewhere. It has been found by the Italians that after the accumulation of a few pigment granules the organisms seek the internal organs, where segmentation takes place. The bodies are still small and contained within the red corpuscles. The pigment gathers in the center, as in the other types of segmentation, while the segments are very small and rarely more than twelve in number. During the paroxysm we may see large numbers of leucocytes containing pigment granules and clumps which are probably the remains of segmenting organisms. Flagellate bodies may be observed here as in the tertian and quartan fevers, but only when ovoid and crescentic pigmented bodies are present. They may be seen to develop from the round

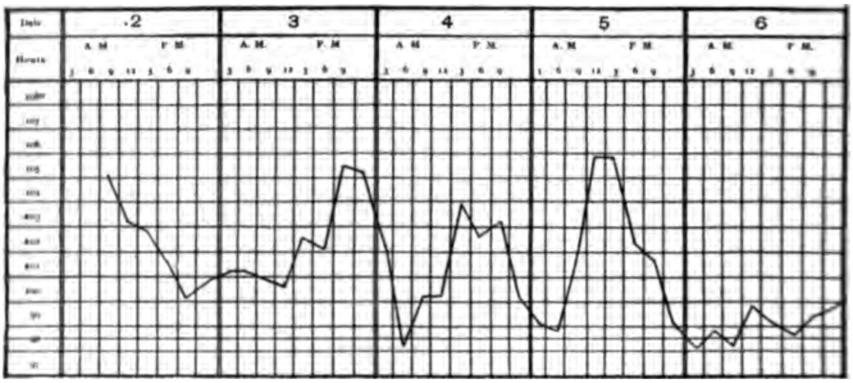

Fig. 222.—Estivo-autumnal Fever (mild type). Ushered in with vomiting, restlessness and flushing. The spleen is enlarged. Either delirium or drowsiness and somnolence exists. (Original.)

bodies with central pigment. Careful studies concerning the morphological characteristics of the malarial parasite have shown that it belongs to the class of protozoa, and is possessed of a nucleus containing one or more nucleoli. At the time of sporullation this nucleus divides—according to some—directly, according to others by karyokinesis."

Pathology.—In fatal malaria the following changes are found:—

The spleen is enlarged; the capsule tense. Death has been reported from rupture of the spleen (Thayer). The pulp of the spleen contains large numbers of red blood-corpuscles in which the characteristic parasite is found. "The capillaries are usually filled with the plasmodia, while the splenic veins show relatively few, though they always contain large cells enclosing pigment or the remains of red corpuscles."

The Liver.—Small areas of necrosis are described by Guarnieri: "Numerous liver cells are found containing clumps of hæmatin and altered red corpuscles, a condition similar to that found in pernicious anæmia. Bignami believes that this may explain the polycholia found in cases that died of pernicious malaria."

Examination of the Blood.—A small drop of blood should be taken from the ear or from a finger tip. The usual aseptic precautions, such as carefully washing the finger with soap and water, followed by a washing with alcohol or ether, should be strictly carried out. Fresh blood must be examined soon after it has been withdrawn—no later than three or four hours. A film of blood can be preserved if the air is excluded by smearing vaseline around the edges of the cover glass. The amœboid movements of the protozoa can be studied in this fresh blood. Blood for examination should be drawn about one hour before the expected paroxysm. The organisms are much smaller after a paroxysm.

"The tertian parasite completes its life in about forty-eight hours, or less, if there is any variation from this time. In the first twelve hours of their life the parasites appear as small, clear specks (hyaline bodies) in the red corpuscles, and if any pigment is to be seen it is as very small granules. If stained they appear pale blue. They are actively amœboid, and remain so for about an hour after withdrawal. In the next twelve hours the parasites have grown to about one-third the size of the corpuscle, are still amœboid, show fine granules, and the corpuscle has become paler. In the next twelve hours the parasites have taken up about two-thirds of the cell, have become less amœboid; the granules larger and moving. The parasites are now more irregular in shape, and the corpuscles larger and paler, the pigment granules standing out more markedly. In the next twelve hours all motion ceases, the corpuscles become shells, the centers of which are occupied by the parasites, and spore formation and segmentation begin. The organisms break up into fifteen or twenty round spores, at first contained inside the cell-wall of the red corpuscles, and then set free into the blood. It is at this time that the clinical paroxysm occurs. All hyaline bodies do not develop to the stage of spore formation, nor do all these spores—really the young hyaline bodies—which have been set free into the blood serum re-enter the red corpuscles, but the blood plasma itself destroys many of them.

"Should we have under observation clinically a quotidian form of malaria, the red corpuscles would show the tertian parasite in but two stages of development, one group being approximately twenty-four hours older than the other; of course, depending upon the hour at which the paroxysms occur. This is due to a double infection. It must not be forgotten, however, that we may have a triple quartan infection that produces daily paroxysms.

"The quartan parasite grows in seventy-two hours. In the first twelve hours it is a very small, unpigmented, slightly amœboid, hyaline body, becoming in twelve hours more about the size of one-sixth to one-fifth that of the corpuscle, having taken on a few pigmented granules placed peripherally. In forty-eight hours it is one-half to two-thirds the size of the red corpuscle, round, as a rule, and possessing no amœboid movement. In sixty hours from the paroxysm, it occupies nearly all of the corpuscle, which is neither enlarged nor paler than normal. In six hours more the pigment granules approach the center and are arranged like the spokes of a wheel, the first sign of segmentation. About three hours before the attack, segmentation has produced from six to ten oval or pear-shaped bodies or spores containing pigment in their centers. In multiple infections of this type we, of course, find the organisms in the blood in different stages of development. Flagellated bodies develop after the blood is removed from the body, and consist of a central cell with arms thrown out. These arms are freely movable. In examining a fresh specimen, we may see such a body keeping up a constant ciliary motion and causing a disturbance in the arrangement of the red cells in its immediate neighborhood. The flagellated body does not often appear in either of the foregoing types of the infection, but is more common in the æstivo-autumnal variety. The second group of parasites belongs to the class of malignant or æstivo-autumnal figures, and are divided into, *first*, the pigmented quotidian parasite; *second*, the unpigmented quotidian parasite; and *third*, the malignant tertian.

"The pigmented quotidian parasite completes its cycle in twenty-four hours. When seen in the blood-corpuscle, it appears as a small actively amœboid, hyaline body, rapidly becoming pigmented and quiet, the pigment lodging in the periphery of the organism, after which it breaks up into spores. It has been pointed out that segmentation of this type does not take place in the peripheral blood, but occurs in the spleen and bone marrow. The pigmented organism occupies one-third of the corpuscle which is shrunken, if changed at all. After the infection has lasted for several days crescents appear.

TABLE No. 67.

		Develops in	Movements.	Pigmentation.	Maximum Size.	Forms of Spore Formation.	Number of Spores.	Crescent Bodies.	Alterations in the Infested Blood-corpuscles.
Simple Intermittent Fever	Quartan parasite	Seventy-two hours	Small movements in immature forms	Coarse granules, little or no movement	Size of red blood-corpuscles	Daisy form, single spores, round, with distinct nucleolus	6 to 12	None	Red blood-corpuscles are little discolored and do not alter their size.
	Ordinary tertian parasite	Forty-eight hours or less in anticipating cases	Active amœboid movements in immature and also in middle-aged forms	Fine granules in immature forms, often in the larger, actively swarming	Size of red blood-corpuscles, sometimes larger	Sunflower or grape-like, single spores, small round nucleolus; rarely seen	15 to 20, often less	None	Red corpuscles are often hypertrophied, and lose their color quickly and completely.
Malignant or Æstivo-Autumnal Fever	Pigmented quotidian parasite	Twenty-four hours	The unpigmented, immature forms actively amœboid, less active when the pigment accumulates	Very fine, later coalesced in one or two lumps. Does not swarm	One-fourth to one-third the size of red blood-corpuscles	Irregularly formed heaps	6 to 8, often more	Present	Red blood-corpuscles often shrink, and are thin, either take stain copper-colored or may be completely decolorized.
	Unpigmented quotidian parasite	Twenty-four hours or less	Very active, amœboid movements	None	One-fifth to one-fourth the size of red blood-corpuscles	Star-shaped or in irregular heaps	6 to 8	Present	Red corpuscles shrink frequently and are darker stained.
	Malignant tertian parasite	Forty-eight hours	Active movement remains present in pigmented bodies	Moderately fine; often shows the oscillatory movement	One-half to two-thirds the size of red blood-corpuscles	Irregular heaps	10 to 12, rarely 15 or 16	Present	Red blood-corpuscles shrink frequently and are darkly stained or may be perfectly colorless.

"*Crescents are always an evidence of æstivo-autumnal fever,* **and never** occur in the quartan or tertian type. They are from eight to ten micromillimeters in length and from two to three micromillimeters in breadth, are half-moon shaped when typical, but vary greatly, oftentimes appearing almost straight. They contain pigment sometimes scattered, but oftener found clumped in the center, and usually without motion. With a good light and an accurate adjustment the shell of the red blood-corpuscle can be seen extending from the poles of the crescent, showing that this parasite is distinctly an intracellular formation. Crescents are distinctly an evidence that the infection has lasted a number of days,—five or six—and they will not be found in any specimen before that time. The unpigmented quotidian parasite shows not many variations from the foregoing type, except that it is free from the pigment, though the crescents formed from this variety may show pigmentation. The malignant tertian parasite is pigmented and, in fact, much like the pigmented quotidian. It grows to segmentation once in forty-eight hours, and is amœboid in the advanced stage; the pigment is active and the entire organism is larger. Probably no better idea can be given concisely of the different characteristics of these parasites than by reproducing the table of Mannaberg." (See p. 669).

Symptoms.—In very young children there may be convulsions, restlessness, cold extremities, and yawning. The pulse is full and rapid. The temperature may reach as high as 105° F., or even higher. After this febrile stage the body is covered with a profuse perspiration, ending in sleep from exhaustion. Diarrhœa is occasionally met with in this condition, and is probably the result of secondary infection. Bronchitis is occasionally seen. The paroxysm of fever occurs when the protozoa matures and begins to divide. This process repeats itself about every twenty-four hours in the tertian type of intermittent fever most frequently seen in this country. If children are carefully observed, then the onset of a paroxysm is frequently seen by a severe cyanosis affecting the nails. This would correspond to the chill seen in the older children. Slight albuminuria or hæmaturia frequently accompanies malaria. There is no disease that can be mistaken for the tertian type of malaria when it is remembered that there is a sick day with fever, etc., and an alternating apparently healthy day.

An enlarged spleen is usually present.

Diagnosis.—This can be most positively made by an examination of the blood. So many symptoms present in malaria, such as lassitude, pains in the bones, headache and fever, simulate other diseases, that only the positive finding of Laveran's protozoa in the blood will complete the diagnosis.

Differential Diagnosis.—If there is a doubt as to the differential diagnosis between tuberculosis and malaria, the specific effect of a few doses of quinine will easily show the presence or absence of malaria. The blood test is, however, conclusive.

A boy, 6 years old, was brought to me at the children's service of the German Poliklinik with a history of headache, fever, and pain in the bones. The boy appeared rather icteric. His mother said that he had lost weight during the last two weeks. He perspired freely, had a good day and a bad day. The fever appeared in the afternoon. The examination showed a well-nourished boy, lungs normal, a slight hæmic murmur at the apex of the heart which was also heard in the vessels at the neck. The spleen was palpable and slightly enlarged. The appetite was poor, the bowels moved sluggishly. The child was restless at night. The examination of the blood showed the presence of the ordinary tertian parasite. Quinine in 3-grain doses was given every four hours, and 6 grains were given three hours before the expected attack, which in this condition was between 1 and 2 o'clock in the afternoon. Fifteen drops of cascara sagrada were administered before breakfast of each day. The treatment was continued for ten days. The boy then complained of buzzing in the ears, evidently due to cinchonism. Quinine was given every second day and Fowler's solution in 3-drop doses was administered on alternate days. Strengthening food was given and the child made a complete recovery. Quinine was given once every three days after the first month. The child took an ocean voyage and was perfectly well in two months. Iron was then given for several months as a tonic and the treatment discontinued.

Prognosis.—This is usually good. If malaria is neglected severe anæmia follows, and if pernicious malaria results it may end in death. In this country the specific effect of quinine and the change of climate usually gives successful results.

Treatment.—A patient suffering with malaria should, if possible, be removed to a different climate. A change from the city to the country, or *vice versâ,* is very beneficial. Next in importance to change of air is the specific effect of quinine. Five grains of quinine (0.3) can be given to a child 3 years old. The hydrochlorate of quinine is the most effective. Owing to its disagreeable taste it can be given in tablet form, after which a mouthful of coffee or chocolate can be given. When quinine is refused by mouth, then a 10-grain dose in the form of a suppository can be given three times a day, per rectum. *The best time for administering quinine is about three hours before the expected attack.* The bisulphate of quinine is a soluble and convenient form to use. It is very important to keep the bowels open and the kidneys active. Fifteen to 30 drops of fluid extract of cascara sagrada can be given in a palatable menstruum every morning, so that the action of the bowel is assisted. In true malaria, I have found especial benefit in administering whisky well diluted with water, or given in milk. Apart from its nutritive properties, it certainly has decided antiseptic properties. If malaria persists in spite of continued treatment, then arsenious acid in doses of $^{1}/_{100}$ or $^{1}/_{150}$ grain, can be administered three times a day. Fowler's solution, in doses of 1 to 5 drops, should not be forgotten. Jacobi recommends ergot in doses of 20 to 50 drops every day for weeks. When it is not well borne he combines it with quinine or arsenic. I have never been able to see the slightest benefit from the use of ergot, although I have tried it in many cases. I believe Jacobi's results were good when he combined the ergot with the quinine *because the quinine* was given.

CHAPTER XV.

SYPHILIS.

This is a specific disease most probably caused by the invasion of a micro-organism. The disease in infancy is the same as that found in adults. There are two forms of the disease:—

1. Inherited syphilis.
2. Acquired syphilis.

Etiology.—The most frequent modes of infection are:—

By nursing from the breast of a syphilitic wet-nurse.

Eating from the dishes of syphilitic patients.

Unclean surgical instruments; for example, when an infant is vaccinated, or during the operation of circumcision.

The Transmission of Syphilis in Utero.—An infant in utero may be infected directly through the circulation in the placenta. If the mother acquires syphilis during the ninth month of her pregnancy, the same will not infect her child nor modify its development. A healthy infant in utero can be infected by passing through a syphilitic genital tract of its mother during labor.

When the ovum is infected with syphilis, which frequently happens at the time of conception, it may terminate in the death of the fœtus, resulting in an abortion or in the birth of a still-born child. If the child lives it may suffer with cachexia, and a few weeks later present the characteristic skin-lesions. The father can infect the mother for three or, at the most, five years after his chancre. The father may infect the fœtus as late as twenty years after his chancre, when for years he has presented no signs of syphilis. The mother may have a series of syphilitic pregnancies resulting in miscarriages or in syphilitic infants, without at any time herself presenting any syphilitic manifestations. In the same couple the severity of the infection transmitted to the fœtus tends to decrease with succeeding pregnancies. Thus it is the rule for the mother to have at first several abortions, then a child born dead, and finally a living child showing the evidences of inherited syphilis. Children born later usually suffer less severely, but this "law of decreases" (Diday) is not without numerous exceptions; sometimes the third or fourth child suffers more than the second. In other families children of one sex suffer more than those of the opposite sex. In twin pregnancies one may be affected while the other apparently escapes. The apparent escape of the mother of syphilitic infants by a syphilitic father has been accounted for on the supposition that she undergoes a mitigated infection derived from the fœtus. Coutts[1] has pointed out the theory that she absorbs from the fœtus a syphilitic antitoxin; this would account not only for her apparent immunity, but also for the gradual decrease in the severity of the disease in later pregnancies. If the mother be infected but not the father, death of the fœtus is the most likely result. If the child is born alive it will probably suffer from inherited syphilis. If both parents have suffered from manifest syphilis, the chance of abortion or still-birth is greater.

Colles's Law.—In 1837 Colles wrote that "A new-born child affected with inherited syphilis, even though it may have the specific lesions in the mouth, never causes infection of the breast which it sucks if it be the mother who nurses it, although continuing capable of infecting a strange nurse." The substantial truth of this dictum has not been seriously questioned, though various explanations have been offered.

Is Inherited Syphilis Contagious?—The following interesting conclusions are based upon Robert W. Parker's twenty years' experience in the East London Children's Hospital:—

1. The children of syphilitic parents very frequently show manifestations of a disease which is almost universally called "inherited syphilis."

2. In a large proportion of the cases this inherited disease is not syphilis at all, in that the disease is non-contagious, and would be better named "inherited from syphilis."

3. This inherited syphilis is true syphilis only if it conform to the ordinary tests which pertain to contact syphilis, and prove to be infectious and contagious.

4. The children of syphilitic parents occasionally inherit syphilis.

5. The mother suckling a child with such a disease may be infected by it.

6. A healthy wet-nurse and other persons brought into contact with such a child are even more liable to be infected by it than the mother.

7. Lymph taken from such a child, even although apparently well at the time, will probably, or possibly, invaccinate syphilis.

8. In reply to the question: "Can a healthy woman give birth to a syphilitic child?" the answer must be "No."

9. Many women give birth to children who suffer from what is called "inherited syphilis," without themselves appearing to be infected. The explanation is obvious: this "inherited syphilis" is not syphilis in the true sense, and the mother's so-called escape depends upon this fact.

10. There is no recent clinical evidence which fully realizes Colles's teaching, viz.: a mother suckling her own syphilitic infant and escaping an infection to which a healthy wet-nurse suckling the same infant, and

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[1] "Some Aspects of Infantile Syphilis." Hunterian Lectures, London, 1897.

other members of her family who have merely handled this infant, have succumbed, the latter facts being essential if only to establish the contagiousness of the infant's disease in any and every given case asserted to be "inherited syphilis."

Pathological Anatomy.—*In acquired syphilis* changes are the same in the child as in the adult.

In hereditary syphilis there are certain constant changes present in the bones. These changes are confined to the shafts of the long bones and to the cranial bones.

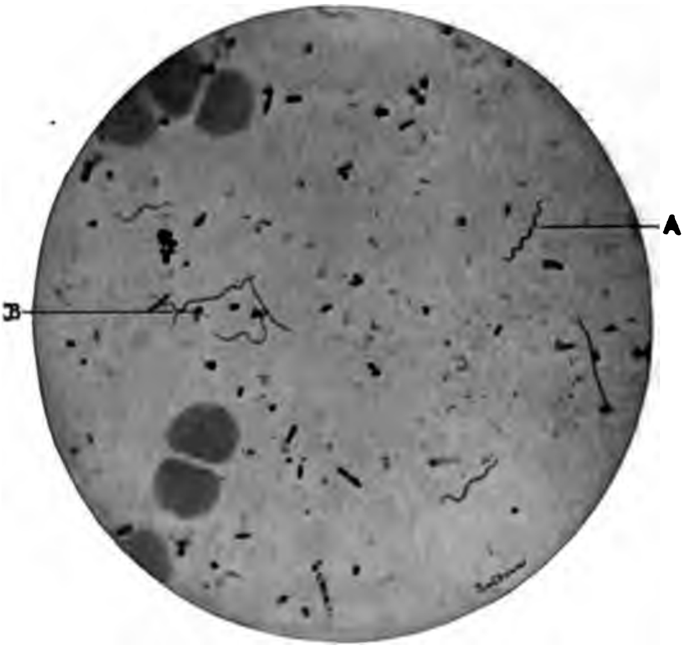

Fig. 223.—(*A*) Spirochæte Pallida; (*B*) Spirochæte Refringens from a case of Syphilis. First described by Schaudinn and Hoffmann in Berlin in May, 1905. There is no question but that the above parasites are the causative agents of syphilis. This specimen was obtained through the kindness of Dr. Boas, of Berlin. (Original.)

The pathological changes are not confined to the epiphyses, but the diaphyses are also swollen. The ends of the bones are swollen. The inner portion of the periosteum shows swelling and hyperæmia.

The circulatory apparatus shows thickening of the arterial walls as well as of the veins. Owing to this degeneration there is a tendency to bleeding. (See clinical case described in this chapter.)

Catarrhal manifestations showing implication of the respiratory tract, and also the gastro-intestinal tract, can be noted. The liver, spleen, and pancreas are enlarged.

The lymph glands of the entire body are enlarged.

Symptoms.—When catarrh is troublesome in children and not amenable to ordinary treatment, syphilis should be suspected. It is surprising to find the frequency with which nasal and nasopharyngeal catarrh is associated with syphilis. I have not yet had occasion to regret asking a direct question of a parent in whom I suspected syphilis, if such parent is told that we must know his previous history, for the benefit of his child.

Gastro-intestinal Tract.—The gastro-intestinal tract is the one that will frequently show the manifestations of syphilis. An infant will not appear to thrive nor will it digest, in spite of the most careful dietetic measures. Syphilitic lesions of the liver, pancreas, stomach, and intestine are simply all part of the infection. Anti-luetic treatment will frequently do more good in a few days or weeks than months of rigid diet. Thus it is apparent that in order to do good in this disease we must seek to remove the cause.

When a persistent diarrhœa will not respond to the ordinary treatment of careful diet and medication, then suspect syphilis. When diarrhœa such as a mucus-colitis persists without fever after careful dieting, then syphilis may be suspected.

The following case will illustrate congenital syphilis:—

An infant about one week old was seen by me. It was the fourth child of apparently healthy parents. Three children had previously died, and this fourth child was born at full term. The mother noticed that the child cried incessantly and was very restless. The child had had snifles since birth. It was breast-fed and appeared to suffer with colic and hunger. The stools were grass-green and contained mucus and curds. The palms and soles had a pemphigus. The skin had a yellowish tinge. The nose was excoriated from the discharge. The anus had deep cracks—the so-called rhagades. Around the mouth were also rhagades. The spleen was enlarged and palpable. The lymph glands were not enlarged. The child did not seem to thrive. The finger nails showed distinct evidences of the disease. The bones of the fingers and toes showed the presence of dactylitis syphilitica. The diagnosis of congenital syphilis was made. The mother had plenty of milk, but was compelled to wean the child owing to a typhoidal condition to which she succumbed. The infant was bottle-fed, and when about five weeks old developed a large abscess on the forearm which was incised under an anæsthetic by Dr. Geo. F. Shrady. One week later a series of metastatic abscesses formed over the abdomen and on the back. The child died from inanition and general sepsis when about nine weeks old.

Hæmorrhages from the nose and mouth, and bloody stools due to ulceration of the intestinal tract are frequently reported.

Uracek has reported hæmorrhages in the different internal organs caused by syphilis in the infant. Umbilical hæmorrhages are sometimes due to syphilis, according to Rotch.

The following case will illustrate bleeding in the new-born:—

An infant suffered with a severe form of marasmus and athrepsia. It did not develop. Examination of the mucous membrane of its mouth, gums, and fauces showed distinct patches. The child was attended by Dr. Honor, of New York City, who referred the case to Dr. W. Freudenthal for diagnosis. The case was also seen by me and I concurred in the opinion expressed, that the patches were non-diphtheritic and were most likely due to syphilis. Several days later Dr. Freudenthal and myself were again called to see this child owing to an extensive nasal hæmorrhage. In spite of the most active local treatment, the use of hæmostatics, such as adrenalin, and the use of styptics internally and externally, the infant died from exhaustion. The attending physician, Dr. Honor, subsequently stated that he had found distinct evidence of syphilis.

Skin Lesions.—The skin lesions develop soon after those of the mucous membrane. The eruption consists of small, round, pink macules, which disappear on pressure. While the eruption may be on the abdomen and lower limbs, it not infrequently is found all over the body. At times the eruption resembles an erythema and is copper-colored. Sometimes the eruption is papular; it is not infrequent to find condylomata around the mouth or anus. These condylomata are very contagious. Pustules are frequently seen as early as two months. This eruption can be differentiated from eczema by the characteristic absence of itching that always accompanies eczema. Furuncles are usually found in poorly nourished children. The infant usually has the appearance of a shriveled old man.

The Teeth.—The teeth in congenital syphilis, instead of appearing at the sixth or seventh month, may not appear until the fourteenth or fifteenth month, and even later. These teeth are usually carious.

Congenital Syphilitic or Hutchinson's Teeth.—This variety of dental abnormality is important, because, as Hutchinson says, "It is, if taken alone, by far the most valuable of the signs by which we recognize in adolescence the effect of inherited syphilis." The characteristics of these teeth are not sufficiently known, and abnormal and peculiar teeth of other kinds are often erroneously regarded as proofs of congenital syphilis. The main points about "Hutchinson's teeth" are as follows:—

1. It is always the permanent teeth which are affected. The temporary teeth in syphilitic infants often decay early, but they present no special peculiarities of form.

2. The characteristic peculiarities which distinguish these central incisors are as follows: They are dwarfed, being too short and too narrow; and sometimes the portion of the upper jaw from which they grow is also arrested in growth. They often stand somewhat apart and slope toward one another. They are unusually rounded on section; they are "pegged" and they are notched. The notch is usually shallow and the dentine is exposed at the bottom of it. It is formed by the breaking away of the imperfectly developed central portion of the edge. The teeth are generally

not of a good color, and they are abnormally soft, so that by the time the patient is 20 they may be ground down like those of an old man.

The first molars are next in diagnostic importance to the upper central incisors. When characteristic they are spoken of as "dome-topped." Their sides slope toward the center, over which the enamel is defective. As might be expected, syphilitic teeth not infrequently present the characteristics of mercurial teeth in addition to their own peculiarities.

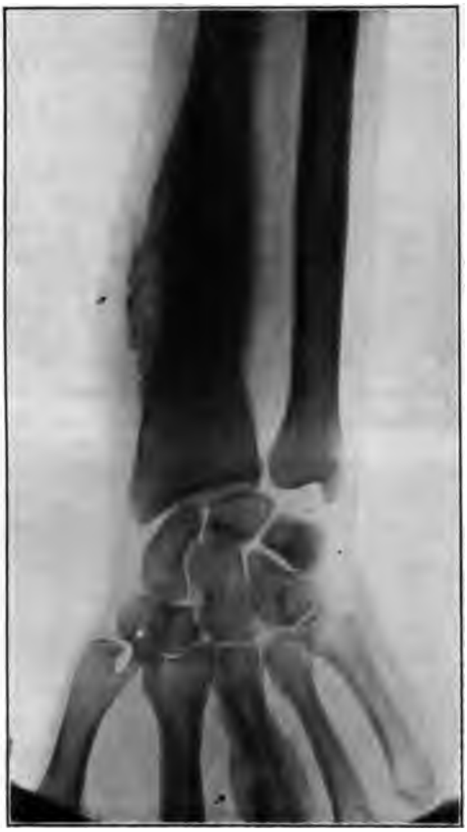

Fig. 224.—Syphilis. Child 14 years old. A productive periostitis enclosing the shafts of the long bones. Absolutely characteristic of syphilis.

Diagnosis and Differential Diagnosis.[1]—The clinical history will be the guide in congenital syphilis. The history of previous abortions and stillborn children will aid in establishing a diagnosis.

The cachectic skin, the wrinkled mouth, and rhagades at both mouth and anus will materially aid in establishing a diagnosis.

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[1] See "Blood in Syphilis," page 685.

TABLE NO. 68.—*Differential Points Between Syphilis and Tuberculosis.* (Morrow.)

SYPHILIS.	TUBERCULOSIS.
Exhibits a marked predilection for the long bones; its habitual localization is in the diaphysis and almost always at its terminal extremity.	Is almost exclusively situated in the epiphysis, rarely affecting the shaft.
There is a marked enlargement of the bone by more or less voluminous osseous tumors or hyperostoses, with little or no involvement of the soft parts.	The tumefaction is due less to increase in the size of the bone than to œdematous infiltration of the soft structures.
There is little tendency to suppuration and necrosis.	The pyogenic tendency is marked.
Osteocopic pains with tendency to nocturnal exacerbation are pronounced features.	The pain is dull and heavy, not aggravated at night; sometimes there is entire absence of acute painful symptoms.
The osseous lesions rarely react upon the general system.	The osseous lesions often determine a marked impairment of the general health, grave complications, hectic fever, cachexia, etc.
In dactylitis there is little involvement of the soft parts, the swelling being caused by the enlargement in the size of the bone.	In dactylitis the swelling is due more to an œdematous infiltrated condition of the soft tissues than to enlargement of the bone. Breaking-down of the tissues and ulceration are more apt to ensue.

At times pseudo-paralysis will be present; sometimes coryza, hoarseness, inflamed eyes, and persistently running ears.

The Wassermann Reaction.—In suspicious cases the blood should be examined to see if we get a positive Wassermann reaction.

Luetin Test.—This reaction devised by Noguchi is apparently specific for syphilis. It is useful after the spirochete can no longer be demonstrated, and when the Treponema pallidum still survives in the body. This reaction is useful when the Wassermann reaction is doubtful. As a rule 90 per cent. of hereditary syphilis gives a positive reaction.

An emulsion of pure culture of Treponema pallidum is prepared and 0.057 cubic centimeter is injected under the skin by means of a very fine needle. If a red, indurated papule forms after twenty-eight to forty-eight hours, surrounded by a diffuse zone of redness, then the reaction is positive.

This redness increases for three to four days, gradually subsides, and disappears within a week. A slight rise of temperature may accompany this reaction.

"The diagnosis between syphilis and rachitic bone lesions may become of great importance. Epiphyseal swellings occurring under six months are apt to be syphilitic. In syphilis the epiphyseal swelling may be unilateral, but it is always symmetric in rachitis. In doubtful cases the swelling must

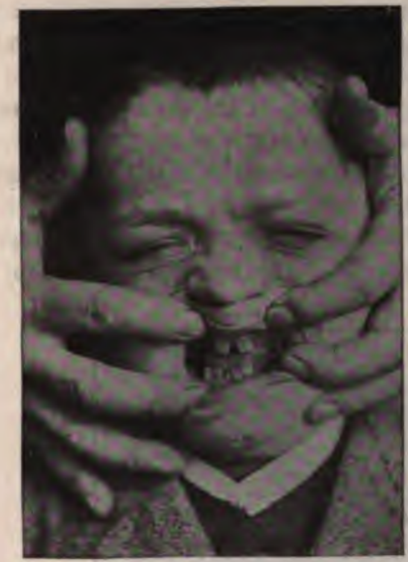

Fig. 225.

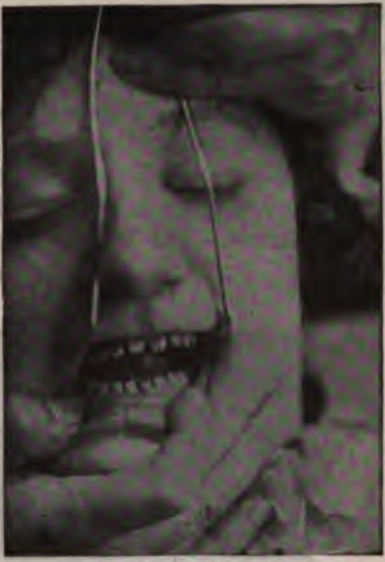

Fig. 226.

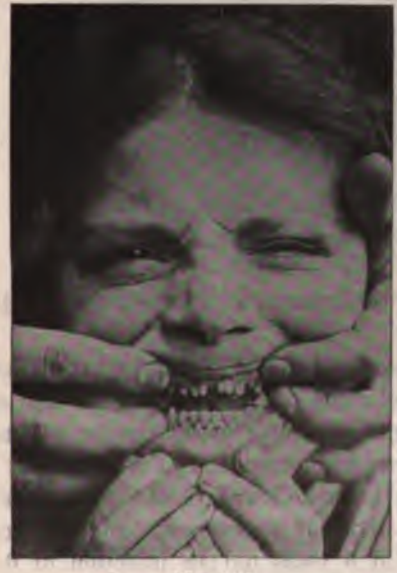

Fig. 227.

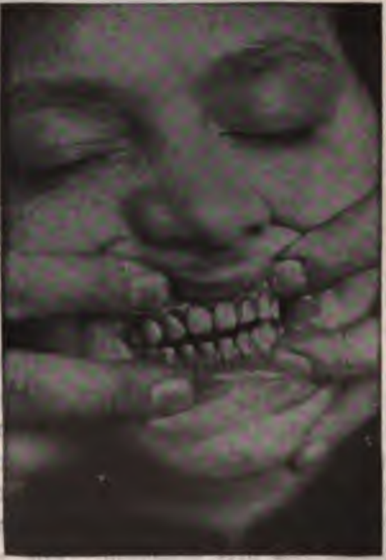

Fig. 228.

Figs. 225-228.—Syphilitic Teeth. Various types of hereditary syphilitic teeth, as described by Hutchinson; also parenchymatous keratitis. Note that the upper central incisors show the positive evidence of syphilis. (Courtesy of Dr. Hugo Neumann.)

be subjected to specific treatment. Rickets and syphilis may coexist in the same case. There is almost invariably enlargement at the costochondral articulations in all cases of rickets, which is absent in syphilis."

Prognosis. This depends upon the condition of the child at the time treatment is commenced. Such children have very little or no vitality.

Hereditary syphilis can be transmitted to healthy children, so that the precaution of strict isolation should be remembered.

Treatment.—The therapy of syphilis has undergone a radical change since the introduction of neosalvarsan. Through the courtesy of Prof. Ehrlich, I received a liberal supply of neosalvarsan, also known as dioxydiamidoarsenobenzol or "606."

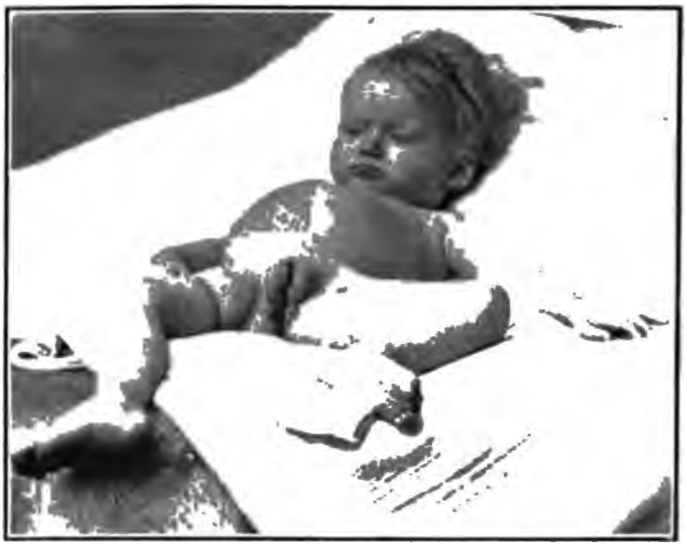

Fig. 229. Congenital Syphilis Before Injection of Salvarsan. (Original.)

No case should be injected until a positive Wassermann reaction has been obtained. The choice of the technique of the injection is one of preference, although the intravenous method seems most popular because of better results. The following doses are recommended: For an infant 1 year old, an injection of 0.06 gramme, to be followed in one week by an injection of 0.1 gramme (intravenous method) if no severe systemic reaction follows the first injection. For a child 5 years old an injection of 0.1 gramme, followed one week later by an injection of 0.2 gramme. Complications must be guarded against. When we recall that one third of salvarsan consists of arsenic, then the toxicity of the same is well brought out. By the intravenous method we diffuse the efficiency of this drug into the circulation and prevent the cumulative effect which usually follows the intramuscular injection.

In one of my cases[1] severe necrosis of the tissues in the gluteal region was followed by a series of deep abscesses. In addition thereto, a multiple neuritis developed which involved the lower limbs and persisted until five months after the injection was given. The syphilitic ulcerations and condylomata around the vagina and anus improved after three or four days and practically disappeared. This child was 18 months old and received 0.3 of an alkaline solution of salvarsan injected into the gluteal region.

B. L., six years old, a former patient of Dr. Tunick, was admitted to the babies' ward of the Sydenham Hospital. The mother had an innocent infection.

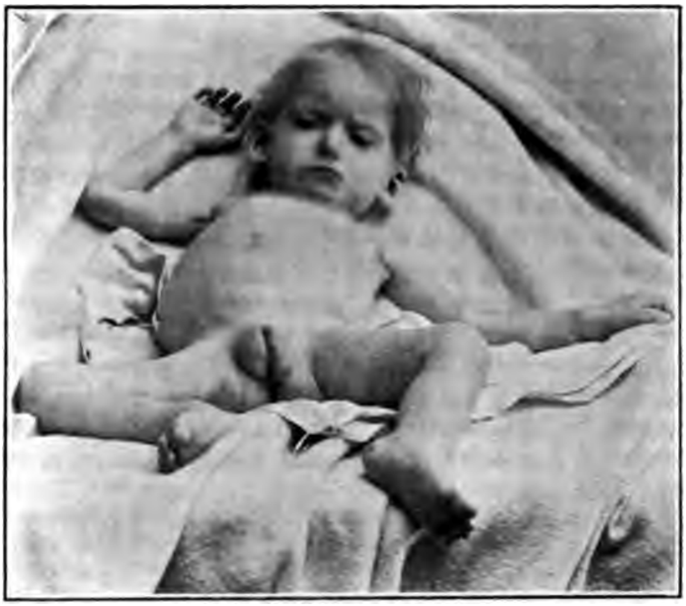

Fig. 230.—Appearance of Lesions One Week After Injection of Salvarsan. (Original.)

The child showed distinct evidences of syphilis. Two years previous a gumma of the left testicle existed, and said testicle was removed. At time of admission he had very marked superficial veins, periostitis, and gumma of the left knee-joint. The Wassermann reaction and the Noguchi reaction were positive. All serological examinations were made by Dr. D. M. Kaplan.

One injection of 0.3 salvarsan, in a neutral solution, was given, with aseptic precautions in the left buttock. No local reaction followed. The child made a brilliant recovery. The swelling in joint subsided after three days. The boy walked in one week and was discharged two weeks after admission.

Local Treatment.—The safest method of administering mercury is in the form of bichloride baths. These baths can be given in a wooden tub, in which enough water is drawn to cover the child's body. From 5 to 10 grains of bichloride can be added to this tub of water. Infants up to 1 year can be bathed from ten to twenty minutes every day.

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[1] Reported in the Journal of American Medical Association, February 11, 1911.

The presence of eczematous or other skin eruptions would not contraindicate giving these baths.

The inunction of chemically pure mercurial ointment well rubbed into the axillæ, knee-joints, or the thighs will materially aid in bringing this drug into the system.

For the relief of syphilitic warts nothing is better than:—

℞ Bichloride	10 parts
Alcohol	100 parts

Apply with absorbent cotton several times a day.

Internal Treatment.—Internally calomel and bichloride or the tannate of mercury can be given in suitable doses. It is advisable to give the child from 1 to 5 grains of iodide of sodium, according to age, to alternate with the mercurial treatment.

Care should be taken that stomatitis is not developed in nurslings. If, however, stomatitis has developed, then active and persistent treatment with chlorate of potash solution, locally, will be found effectual.

It is self-understood that hygienic treatment in addition to careful diet is just as important as the specific drug treatment.

Feeding.—A diet of milk, eggs, cereals, fish, and fruit should form the basis of nutrition. The reader is referred to the articles on "Marasmus" and "Rickets" as a guide to the method of feeding necessary to reconstruct a weakened child.

PART VIII.

DISEASES OF THE BLOOD, GLANDS OR LYMPH NODES, AND DUCTLESS GLANDS.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY.

THE BLOOD.[1]

The red corpuscles (also known as the erythrocytes). The red corpuscles of the blood are more numerous at birth than in later life. Hayem and Helot found that when the umbilical cord was not tied until its pulsations ceased, a greater number of red corpuscles were found than in cases where immediate ligation was performed. Leder and Hutchinson, comparing the new infant's blood with that of its mother, found that the blood of the infant contained a larger number of red corpuscles. The following table will show the difference in blood count by various writers:—

TABLE NO. 69.

Hayem	averaged	5,360,000
Sörensen	"	5,665,000
Otto	"	6,165,000
Bouchat and Dubrisay	"	4,300,000
Schiff (one case)	"	6,658,000
Gundobin	"	6,700,000
Elder and Hutchinson	"	5,346,560
Schwinger greatest at birth.		

The difference varies between 350,000 and 500,000 per cubic millimeter. Gundobin believed that the concentration of the blood was caused by loss of water through the lungs. Schiff found the same condition; he also states that the number of corpuscles decreases when the child is put to the breast. The number of red corpuscles begins to fall after the second day.

In one case Schiff studied the number in the morning and evening during the first fifteen days of life; he found the number declined irregularly. The first day's count was 7,628,000; the last day's count was 4,565,600; the average for the fifteen days was 5,828,465.

According to Schwinger and Gundobin, there is a decrease in the number during the first year; after this there is an increase up to the eighth or twelfth year, when the number becomes approximately that of adult life. Sex makes no difference in the count of the red corpuscles in infancy.

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[1] I am indebted to Stengel and White, Archives of Pediatrics, April, 1901, for many valuable points in the preparation of this article.

Size.—The red corpuscles vary greatly in size at birth and during the first few days of life. Hayem found variations between 3.25 μ and 10.25 μ and Loos found the size varying from 3.3 μ to 10.3 μ. Gundobin claims that the hæmoglobin is more firmly attached to the cell stroma in the new-born infant. He also calls attention to the great number of small-sized corpuscles.

The Hæmoglobin.—According to Morse, Elder, Hutchinson, Taylor, and Rotch, hæmoglobin is increased at birth, but the percentage declines rapidly during the first few days of life. According to Rieder, there is an excess of 25 to 30 per cent. at birth compared with infants after feeding has begun.

Specific Gravity.—This varies just like the hæmoglobin. At birth the specific gravity is high.

Monti found the specific gravity at birth	1060
Rotch found the specific gravity at birth	1065
Hoch & Schlesinger found the specific gravity at birth	1066
Moelle found the specific gravity at birth	1060

The specific gravity may not vary for weeks or months in healthy children.

The White Blood Corpuscles (Leucocytes).—Leucocytes are found in greater number at birth than in later life. This excess in number has frequently been spoken of as a normal condition. It is also called ***the physiological leucocytosis of the new-born.***

TABLE No. 70.

Physiological Leucocytosis.	*Pathological Leucocytosis.*
1. Leucocytosis of the newborn.	1. Inflammatory and infectious leucocytosis.
2. Digestion leucocytosis.	2. Leucocytosis of malignant disease.
3. Leucocytosis due to thermal and mechanical influences.	3. Toxic leucocytosis.
4. Thermal leucocytosis.	4. Experimental leucocytosis.

Pathological Conditions.—In disease the first change noticed will be a reduction in the percentage of hæmoglobin, and also in the number of erythrocytes. There are smaller forms of red corpuscles called microcytes.

Nucleated Red Corpuscles (*Erythroblasts*). These cells have been found in primary and secondary anæmias by many observers. They have also been found very abundant in syphilis, rachitis, tuberculosis, pseudoleukæmia, and osteomyelitis.

Leucocytosis.—In leucocytosis an increase in the number of leucocytes is found in the blood of anæmic children. It is also found in toxic and inflammatory conditions. Myelocytes are more frequently found in the blood of children than in adults. Cabot and Engel ascribe a bad prognostic significance in pneumonias and diphtherias to their presence.

Acute colitis causes concentration of blood, with considerable leucocytosis.

Inflammatory leucocytosis is classified, according to Cabot, as follows:—

1. Infection mild; resistance good; small leucocytosis.
2. Infection less; mild; resistance good; moderate leucocytosis.
3. Infection severe; resistance good; very moderate leucocytosis.
4. Infection severe; resistance poor; no leucocytosis.

TABLE No. 71.

	Red blood-corpuscles.	*Leucocytes.*
Birth	5,900,000	21,000
Seventh day	5,000,000	15,000
First year	5,000,000	10,000
Sixth year	5,000,000	7,500

(Coles.)

Proportion of Leucocytes in Adults and Infants.

	Adults.	*Infants.*
Small uninucleated	24 to 30 per cent.	50 to 75 per cent.
Large uninucleated	3 to 6 per cent.	6 to 14 per cent.
Multinucleated or neutrophile	60 to 75 per cent.	28 to 40 per cent.
Eosinophile cells	1 to 2 per cent.	½ to 10 per cent.

In studying a series of blood counts in babies, Warfield found the younger the infant the higher the leucocyte count. Gundobin and Carstanjen found that the increase is due chiefly to an excessive gain in the polynuclear neutrophiles.

Infectious Diseases.—In diphtheria, scarlatina, pneumonia, and erysipelas the polymorphonuclear cells are greatly increased (Weiss and Gundobin). Gundobin found an increase in the number of leucocytes before the eruption in scarlet fever, measles, and erysipelas. In typhoid fever the number of leucocytes is decreased; there may be also a decrease in the number of red corpuscles and in the percentage of hæmoglobin. The number of leucocytes is relatively increased. The polymorphonuclear cells are decreased.

Pneumonia.—Leucocytosis is usually present in this disease. When it is absent the prognosis is grave.

Syphilis.—In hereditary syphilis an anæmia is found with a decrease of the red corpuscles and great degenerative changes (poikilocytosis). In syphilis we find microcytes and macrocytes and nucleated erythrocytes. Myelocytes are also found. Eosinophiles are also met with in this condition.

Bronchitis.—A slight leucocytosis with especial increase of the lymphocytes or mononuclear cells.

Gastro-intestinal Disease.—The condition of the blood varies according to the extent of the process, the duration, and the existence or nonexistence of diarrhœa and vomiting. Profuse diarrhœa and vomiting may for a time thicken the blood by loss of water. Weiss shows an increase of the leucocytes and transitional leucocytes.

Rachitis.—There is usually a reduction in the number of red corpuscles, a decrease in the percentage of hæmoglobin, and an accompanying leucocytosis according to von Jaksch.

Skin Diseases.—There is an increase in the number of eosinophiles. The cause of the same is unknown.

Nervous Diseases.—In the functional disorders of childhood the blood findings are those of a moderate anæmia. Burr has found that the blood in chorea is not as a rule anæmic. In my own examinations (Fischer) the opposite result has been found, and I believe that in prolonged chorea a distinct leucocytosis can be found.

Blood Reaction of Pus.—The glycogenic reaction of the blood has frequently been described in literature. The first complete paper on this subject was published by Dr. M. Goldberger and Dr. Siegfried Weiss.[1] This diagnostic aid is of value when a questionable diagnosis exists.

When an abscess exists, especially if it is localized, there is invariably a marked leucocytosis, even in limited suppurative foci. In the subcutaneous or interstitial connective tissue there is always a high leucocytosis. Ewing found marked leucocytosis in the active stages of otitis and all suppurative processes which subsided rapidly after the operation. There was one exception in abscess of the liver with mucopurulent exudate.

Iodine Reaction (Iodophilia).—This reaction consists in slight or intense reddish-brown granules and a diffuse brown coloring of the entire protoplasm. The protoplasm of the polynuclear neutrophile leucocytes shows a marked affinity for iodine. This intracellular iodine reaction is present in purulent conditions and persists as long as suppuration is present. It has an important diagnostic bearing when abscesses are deep seated. Cabot and Locke[2] obtained uniformly positive reactions in septicemia, pneumonia, empyema, and suppurative appendicitis; in serous pleural effusions and in catarrhal appendicitis the test was negative. In about one-half of the cases of enteric fever examined by these writers the test was positive, usually, only in those complicated by hæmorrhage, perforation, furunculosis, or lung lesions. These studies have been more recently substantiated by Gulland.[3]

The following table, prepared by Casper Sharpless, will assist in the differentiation of the blood:—

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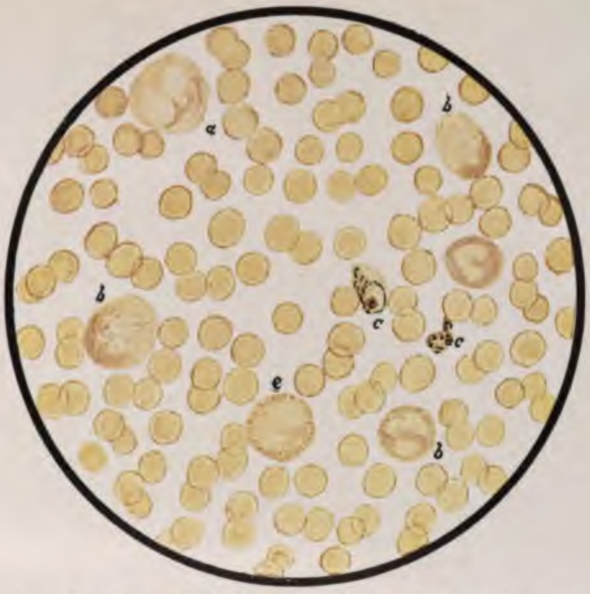
[1] Wiener klinische Wochenschrift, No. 25, 1897.

[2] Journal of Medical Research, 1902, vol. vii.

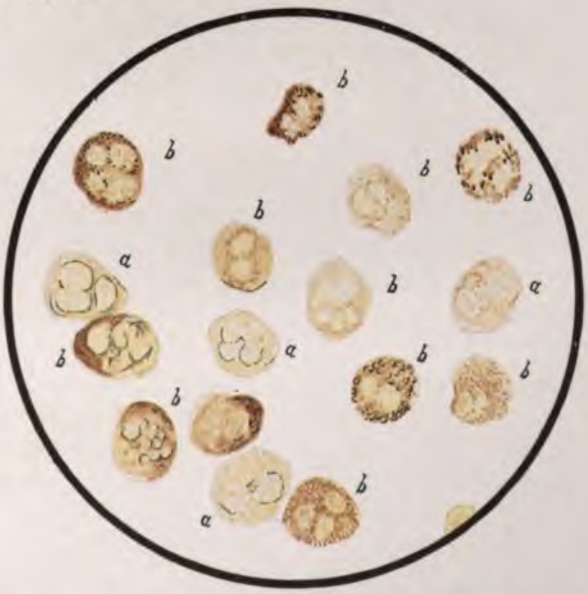
[3] British Medical Journal, 1904, vol. i.

PLATE XXXI

IODOPHILIA. PUS REACTION OF BLOOD.



Coverglass Specimen of Blood in a Case of Suppurative Appendicitis. *a*, Polynuclear leucocytes; *b*, polynuclear leucocytes containing many irregular granules of glycogen; *c*, extra-cellular iodine-stained masses, giving the reaction of glycogen.



a, Pus corpuscles without iodine reaction; *b*, pus corpuscles, iodine reaction. (Original.)

TABLE No. 72.

Disease.	Leucocytosis.	Lymphocytes.	Neutrophiles.	Red Cells.	Hæmoglobin.
Typhoid Fever	Absent	Relatively increased	Decreased	Decreased	Proportionately decreased
Typhoid with complications	Present		Increased	Decreased	Proportionately decreased
Scarlet fever .	Present	Decreased	Increased	Decreased	Proportionately decreased
Measles. . . .	Absent			No change	No change
Small pox . .	Marked on third day		Increased	Much decreased	Proportionately decreased
Erysipelas .	Marked		Increased	Decreased	Proportionately decreased
Diphtheria . .	Marked	Rarely increased	Increased	Slight decrease	Proportionately decreased
Influenza. . .	No change			No change	No change
Typhus fever	No change			No change	No change
Follicular tonsillitis	Moderate			No change	
Acute rheumatism .	Moderate		Increased	Markedly decreased	Markedly decreased
Septicæmia . .	Marked		Increased	Markedly decreased	Proportionately decreased
Abscess. . . .	Marked		Increased	Decreased	Proportionately decreased
Meningitis	Marked		Increased	Slightly decreased	Proportionately decreased
Peritonitis	Marked		Increased	Slightly decreased	Proportionately decreased
Pericarditis .	Marked		Increased	Slightly decreased	Proportionately decreased
Pleurisy	Marked		Increased	Slightly decreased	Proportionately decreased
Malaria . .	Absent	Relatively increased	Decreased	Decreased	Proportionately decreased
Pneumonia[1] .	Marked	Decreased	Increased	Decreased	Proportionately decreased
Appendicitis	Marked				

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[1] In pneumonia there is a decrease of the eosinophiles and in scarlet fever an increase.

TABLE No. 73.

Reaction Present in	*Reaction Absent in*
Empyema.	Serous pleural effusion.
Suppurative appendicitis.	Catarrhal appendicitis.
Enteric fever when complicated by furunculosis or pulmonary lesions.	Enteric fever when uncomplicated.
Gonorrheal arthritis.	Rheumatic arthritis.
Influenza.	Pure tuberculous abscesses.
Cerebro-spinal meningitis.	
Sepsis (septicemia).	

The persistence of this reaction after the incision of a pus cavity suggests, frequently, imperfect drainage.

The staining solution as advised by Goldberger and Weiss[1] is as follows:—

Iodin	1
Potassium iodid	3
Distilled water	100

Mix and add sufficient gum arabic (about 50 parts) to make a syrupy mixture.

With a camel's-hair brush a layer of this solution is painted over the surface of the dried unfixed blood film, upon which it is allowed to act for from one to five minutes. The excess is then removed by blotting with a bit of filter paper, and the specimen is mounted in cedar oil. Or, as Wolff advises, Zollikofer's method may be used: placing the fresh film for a few minutes in a stoppered bottle containing crystals of pure iodine. In films thus treated the iodine reaction is recognized by a slight or intense, diffuse brown coloring of the entire protoplasm, or by the presence throughout the protoplasm of numerous intensely stained, reddish-brown granules, the latter change being the more common. In normal blood the protoplasm of the leucocytes is stained a pale yellow and the nuclei remain almost colorless.

Antibacterial Action of the Blood.—According to Halliburton,[2] "the power of the blood to destroy bacteria was first discovered when an effort was made to grow various kinds of bacteria in it; the blood was believed to be a suitable soil for this purpose, but it was found to have the opposite effect in many instances. The chemical characters of the substances which kill the bacteria are not fully known. Evidence appears to favor the leucocytes as the origin of this bactericidal substance. These substances are called alexins, but the more usual name now applied to them is that of bacteriolysins. The bactericidal power of the blood is closely related to its alkalinity. Increase of alkalinity means increase of bactericidal power. Alkalinity is probably beneficial, because it favors those oxidative processes in the cells of the body which are so essential for the maintenance of healthy life. Normal blood possesses a certain amount of substances which are inimical to the life of bacteria. When a person gets run down there is a diminution in the bactericidal power of his blood. However, a perfectly healthy person has not an unlimited supply of bacteriolysin, and, if the bacteria are sufficiently numerous, he will fall a victim to the disease which they produce. In the struggle he will form more and more bacteriolysin, and if he gets well, it means that the bacteria are vanquished, and his blood remains rich in the particular bacteriolysin he has produced, and so will render him immune to further attacks from that particular species of bacterium. Every bacterium seems to cause the development of a specific bacteriolysin. Immunity can more conveniently be produced gradually in animals, and this applies, not only to the bacteria, but also to the toxins they form."

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[1] Wien. klin. Wochenschr., 1897, vol. x.

[2] Paper read before the British Association for the Advancement of Science.

The Blood in Fever.—There is a decided reduction in the number of red cells during fever. Whether the fever destroys the red cells or causes them to be unequally distributed in the body is the question. Maragliano demonstrated a contraction of arterioles during the height of a febrile process, followed by dilatation during defervescence. He was able to verify these results by noting the effect of antipyretics (Ewing).

Salkowski demonstrated an excess of potassium in the blood during fever, thus favoring the view that the red cells are destroyed. Senator, von Jaksch, and others have shown that febrile processes are regularly marked by diminished alkalescence of the blood. When diphtheria antitoxin is injected, the alkalinity of the blood is increased for about twenty-four hours.

The progressive *loss of albumin* is probably associated with every fever, but occurs in a marked degree when the fever is of an infectious origin. Diminished resistance of the red cells occurs in the majority of fevers and depends on a variety of factors. Variations in alkalinity are frequent and considerable in fever, but are not proportional to either the toxicity or to the height of the temperature (according to Ewing).

The question is, Why do almost all micro-organisms which are harmful to the body raise its temperature? and the suggestion has been made that the rise of temperature is a defensive mechanism, or, in other words, pyrexia is like phagocytosis or chemiotaxis, in some way harmful to the fever-producing micro-organisms or their toxins. It does not follow from this view that the higher the temperature of the body the better the prognosis, for the higher temperature might be taken to indicate that the dose of infection was very severe, and that, therefore, the body did all it could to resist the invasion; nor, on the other hand, would it follow that if the temperature did not rise much, the dose of infection was slight, for it might be that the body was feeble and had but little power of raising its temperature, and therefore defending itself.

It is generally believed, and in all probability correctly, that many cases of typhoid fever are benefited by cold sponging or by a cool bath. Many have hastily concluded that the bath does good because it lowers the temperature. But this is probably incorrect. In the first place we must remember that the cold sponging or bath does more than lower the temperature; it diminishes the delirium, the tremor, and the prostration. In any of these ways it would do good. But, further, Roque and Weil claim to have shown that "in typhoid fever left to itself the toxic products manufactured by the bacillus and organism are eliminated in part during the illness. The urotoxic coefficient is double the normal, but this elimination is incomplete and is only completed during convalescence, for the hypertoxicity continues for four or five weeks after the cessation of the fever. In typhoid treated by cold baths, the elimination of toxic products is enormous during the illness. The hypertoxicity diminishes as the general symptoms mend and as the temperature falls, so that when the period of pyrexia and convalescence sets in the elimination of toxins has ceased." So we learn that it is by no means certain that in typhoid fever the benefit of cold baths is due to their antipyretic influence alone, but also to the elimination of toxins. We see that clinical medicine affords no evidence that antipyretics are useful in fever.

CHAPTER II.

DISEASES OF THE BLOOD.

Anæmia.

A deficiency in the number of red blood-cells or of the hæmoglobin is known as anæmia. As a rule there are two distinct forms: first, congenital; second, acquired.

Congenital Form.—The fœtus in utero is frequently anæmic owing to the inherited disease of its mother. Such diseases are blood disorders like syphilis, or where a general devitalization occurs, as seen in tuberculosis. If the mother while pregnant passes through a severe form of diphtheria, typhoid fever, or any other infectious disease, it may result in anæmia of her offspring.

Malarial infection of the mother may also result in an anæmia of the baby. A severe hæmorrhage due to an operation on the mother during the last period of her pregnancy may cause an anæmia of the baby.

Acquired Form.—This form is due to either an infection of the baby or to toxic conditions acquired after birth and independent of the mother. Most cases of acquired anæmia seen by me are the direct result of malnutrition. I have referred in detail to this condition in the chapter on "Scurvy" and "Rachitis."

Splenic Anæmia (Splenomegalic Cirrhosis of Liver; Banti's Disease).

The characteristic features of this disease consist in progressive enlargement of the spleen, later in the disease cirrhosis of the liver with ascites, and jaundice.

Etiology.—An intoxication is probably the cause of this condition. Whether it is gastric or intestinal is not easily determined.

Pathology.—There is a hyperplasia and fibrosis of the spleen, secondary anæmia, and cirrhosis of the liver as a terminal development in some cases.

Symptoms.—As a result of hæmorrhages, such as hæmatemesis or intestinal bleeding, there is a secondary anæmia. Bleeding may not only be confined to the stomach and bowels, but it may also be due to gastric erosions or varicose veins in the œsophagus. In some cases the gums will bleed. There is usually jaundice because of the cirrhosis of the liver, associated therewith anorexia. Constipation or diarrhœa may be present. The examination of the blood shows nothing definite excepting a leukopænia and a relative lymphocytosis. There is also a hæmic murmur which is systolic. The slightest exertion will be followed by tachycardia. The urine may contain albumin, but no casts, although blood- and pus- cells have been found. The temperature is rarely above 100° in the evening, and is usually about 99° in the morning. The course of the disease is chronic, the treatment purely symptomatic.

SECONDARY ANÆMIA.

Causes.—Toxic influences frequently destroy the blood corpuscles and also the hæmoglobin, hence anæmia results. When hæmorrhage takes place then anæmia frequently follows. Malaria and whooping-cough seem to affect children more than adults. Other diseases, such as rheumatism and endocarditis, in fact, most of the acute infectious diseases, cause anæmia. Improper hygiene, and more frequently improper food, should not be overlooked as causative factors.

Symptoms.—A pale white skin and waxy appearance of the nails is the usual clinical picture. Children do not appear bright. They take no interest in their surroundings, and do not wish to play. Loss of appetite and tendency to constipation frequently exist.

Diagnosis.—This is usually determined by the condition of the blood.

Prognosis.—The origin of the anæmia should be the guide in determining the outcome of this condition. Great care should be used in venturing an opinion, unless we are sure of the origin and can remove the cause of same.

Treatment.—Fresh air, food (chiefly proteids), and restoratives, such as codliver-oil, lipanin, iron, Fowler's solution, and malt preparations, are indicated. Wine or champagne is sometimes valuable.

PERNICIOUS ANÆMIA.

This rare condition is sometimes seen in children.

Etiology.—It may follow simple anæmia so that it would appear as the result of a continuation of malnutrition. Many theories are offered. Tape-worm, syphilis, and rachitis are believed to be the factors causing this condition.

Pathology.- Hunter first reported the presence of a deposit of iron in the hepatic cells. There is also an anæmia of the internal organs. Sometimes capillary hæmorrhages are seen in the various organs. Fatty degeneration is also described as a frequent pathological finding.

General Symptoms. These are the same as previously described in the article on anæmia, although all symptoms are of a more severe type. Epistaxis, in addition to local purpuric spots, denotes the tendency to hæmorrhages. An interference of the return circulation to the heart is manifested by œdema of the feet and ankles. The urine contains neither albumin nor casts.

Special Symptoms.– The blood will furnish the real means of diagnosis. The hæmoglobin may sometimes be as low as 20 to 30 per cent. The erythrocytes are reduced in number; 2,000,000 is a fair average red blood count in this condition, although Lenhartz[1] refers to a reduction of

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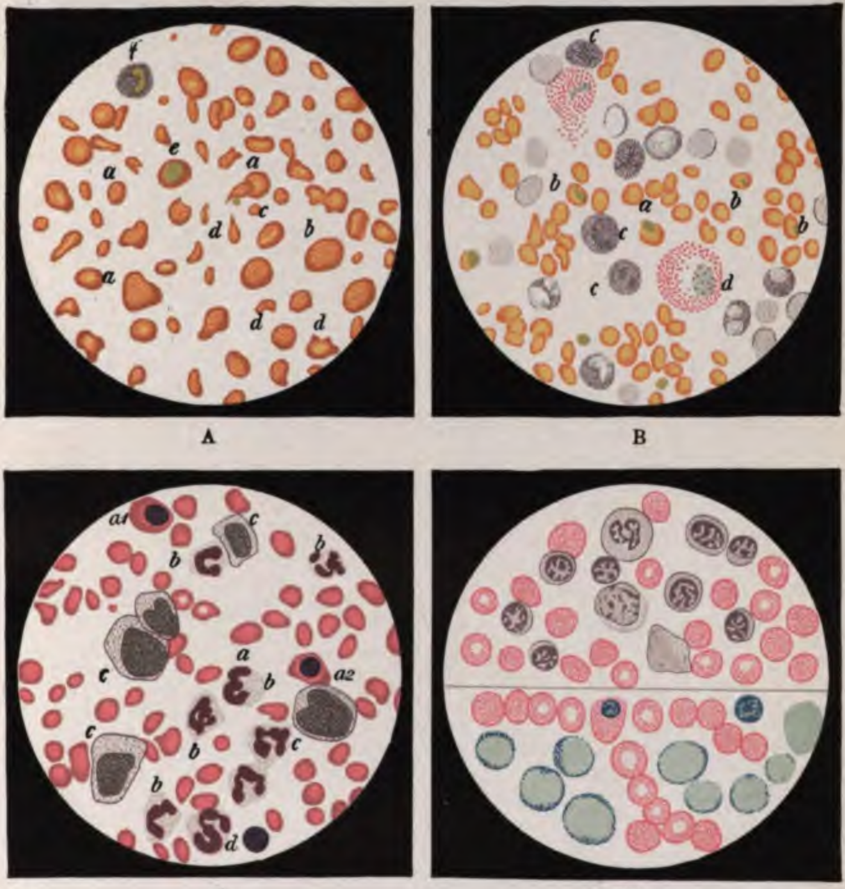
[1] Lenhartz. "Clinical Microscopy," page 156. F. A. Davis Co., 1904.

PLATE XXXII



A B

C D

A.—Progressive Pernicious Anæmia. The case ended fatally in six weeks; cause unknown; possibly in connection with typhoid fever. Ehrlich's triacid stain. Zeiss ocular 1, oil immersion $^1/_{12}$. *a*, normal erythrocytes; *b*, megalocytes; *c*, microcytes; *d*, marked poikilocytosis; *e*, megaloblast; *f*, polynuclear neutrophilic leucocyte. (Lenhartz-Brooks.)

B.—Lienal (Splenic) Leukæmia. *a*, normal erythrocyte; *b*, nucleated erythrocyte, nucleus eccentrically situated; *c*, polynuclear neutrophilic leucocytes; *d*, eosinophilic (myelo) cell. The eosinophilic cell at the top has been ruptured and the granula dispersed. Two small greenish-blue nuclei, perhaps small lymphocytes. (Lenhartz-Brooks.)

C.—Lienal (Splenic) Leukæmia. *a1*, megaloblast; *a*, normal erythrocyte; *a2*, megaloblast, with anæmic degeneration; *b*, polynuclear leucocytes; *c*, "marrow cells" (myelocytes); *d*, large lymphocyte. (Lenhartz-Brooks.)

D.—Acute Leukæmia. This picture is made from two different, rapidly fatal, clinically similar cases. The upper portion is stained with Ehrlich's stain with eosin-hematoxylin; the lower portion is stained with the Plehn-Chenzinsky's stain. (Lenhartz-Brooks.)

erythrocytes as low as 400,000 to 800,000. There is also an enormous poikilocytosis.

In this disease there is a greater reduction in the number of red blood cells (oligocythæmia) than in any other disease.

LEUKÆMIA (LEUKOCYTHÆMIA).

In this condition we have a reduction of the red corpuscles and a corresponding increase in the white blood cells.

Cellular forms called lymphocytes not otherwise found in health are present in the blood. Virchow calls this condition "white blood." Ehrlich calls it a leucocytosis of a chronic type.

Etiology.—This is unknown. Some authors, Roux and Lowit, describe asporozoa in the blood as well as in the leucocytes and in the spleen. Other writers believe that there is a predisposition in syphilitic and rachitic children. Unsanitary surroundings and injury to the spleen are decided etiological factors.

The following classification is given by Ehrlich:—

(a) Lymphatic forms.

(b) Myelogenous and splenic forms.

Lymphatic Form.—When the colorless corpuscles are as large as a normal erythrocyte then an involvement of the glandular system can be diagnosticated.

Myelogenous and Splenic Forms.—If large cells appear then bone-marrow and the spleen evidently participate. When large mononucleated leucocytes are found then the bone-marrow is probably involved. If, in the field of the microscope, three to five or more cells filled with strongly refractive spheroid granules are found, the splenic involvement should be suspected.

Pathology.—The lesions are confined to the bone-marrow, lymphatic glands, and spleen. ***The spleen is enormously enlarged,*** sometimes filling half of the abdominal cavity. Sometimes it is soft, and at other times very hard on palpation. It has a dark red color. In the lymphatic form any or all of the external glands of the body may be affected; thus the cervical, maxillary, bronchial, mesenteric, or inguinal glands may be involved. There is a simple hyperplasia found in the glands. The liver is usually enlarged from an infiltration with lymphoid tissue. The lymphoid tissue in the tonsils and the thymus gland have the same changes. Hæmorrhages are not infrequent.

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—The disease is usually ushered in by a severe hæmorrhage, after which profound anæmia and a general weakness are noted. The spleen is always enlarged and the lymphatic glands are palpable. The glands are movable, but never tender on palpation. The liver is usually enlarged. In the beginning there is little or no fever, although later in the to the development of this condition than robust, healthy girls. Auto-intoxication is certainly a factor, as I have frequently seen chlorosis in girls suffering with chronic constipation.

Pathology.—Distinct pathological lesions cannot be attributed to this condition. In some cases ulcer of the stomach is associated, and this latter condition may be fatal.

Symptoms.—The appetite is poor and such girls invariably crave for sour and spiced foods to stimulate the appetite. Constipation is almost always present. Headache and other nervous symptoms are also present. Such girls are very emotional, and cry and laugh very easily. They are very sensitive. A venous murmur can usually be made out in the vessels of the neck. There is a blowing systolic murmur which can be heard over the heart in the mitral region and also in the region of the pulmonary artery. Venous thrombosis is most frequently seen in the femoral veins, and varicose veins are sometimes seen over the thighs and ankles. Menstruation is irregular and the flow is scanty or very profuse and sometimes painful. There is a decrease in the percentage of hæmoglobin and also a decrease in the number of red corpuscles. The red cells may be reduced to 4,000,000.

The spleen may be slightly enlarged, but on this symptom no reliance can be placed. A puffiness of the face or œdema of the ankles due to a sluggish return circulation is occasionally seen.

When localized areas of pain are complained of in the region of the stomach, then gastric ulcer should be suspected.

Diagnosis.—Chlorosis is met with in girls only at or about the period of menstruation. This is its characteristic diagnostic feature. Such children, as a rule, are fat and look well nourished.

Prognosis.—This is always good, although the disease may last several years. If chlorosis is a forerunner of tuberculosis or gastric ulcer, then a fatal termination may occur. The outcome of a case depends on heroic restorative treatment.

Treatment.—*Hygienic Treatment:* Remove the child from its immediate surroundings, from the city to the country. If chlorosis occurs in a girl living at a boarding-school, in a convent, or in a girl working in a factory, the hygienic conditions demand:—

1. To sleep in an airy room with the windows open at night.
2. Discontinue working, or studying if at school, to procure mental rest.
3. Change the entire mode of living, so that there is neither care nor worry for the chlorotic girl.

Exercise.—Gentle exercise, walking, swimming, the lighter exercises of physical culture followed by a shower-bath and massage are valuable. Friction with a coarse towel after the daily sponge bath is useful to stimulate the circulation. Reading or sewing at night must be forbidden.

Nutrition.—To stimulate metabolism nothing equals food. Proteins in the form of milk, meat, eggs, cereals, cream, butter, and cheese should be liberally given. All fresh fruits may be allowed. Regularity in feeding must be demanded, although a drink of milk, buttermilk, cocoa, or zoolak may be taken between meals.

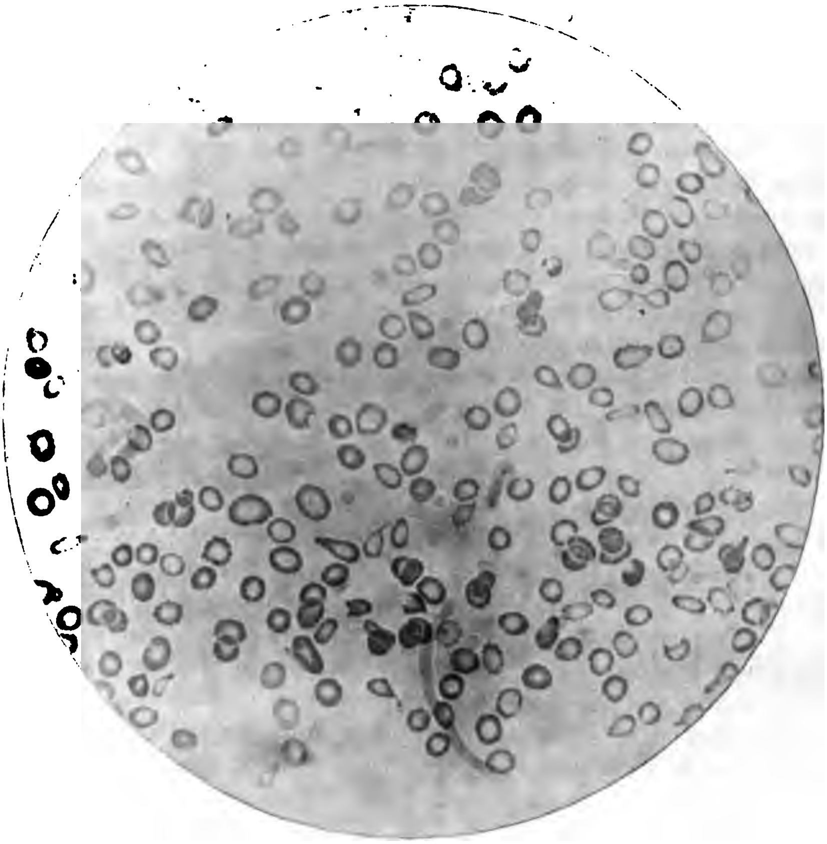


Fig. 231.—Blood from a Case of Chlorosis. Girl 16 years of age. Red cells appear pale (achromia) and vary considerably in size. (Original.)

Medicinal Treatment.—Soluble preparations of iron, such as ovoferrin or peptomangan, may be given in teaspoonful doses after each meal. Arsenic in the form of Fowler's solution or arsenious acid may be combined with the iron. The arseniated hæmaboloids have been tried by me with good result. Maltine with or without hypophosphites may be tried three times a day. Codliver-oil, morrholine, or lipanin may be tried in teaspoonful doses three times a day given after meals. The sun bath or the electric light bath may be tried in conjunction with the above-described treatment.

CHAPTER III.

ACUTE RHEUMATISM (POLYARTHRITIS).

This disease is sometimes known as rheumatic fever, also as inflammatory rheumatism. It is an acute, infectious, but non-contagious disease. The infection is characterized by an inflammation which localizes in the joints, and travels from joint to joint, evidently through the circulation. The most frequent complication is endocarditis.

Etiology.—The specific factor is evidently a micro-organism. A great many observers have studied this subject, among them, Leyden, Sahli, Achalme, Riva, Triboulet, Coyon, Singer, Jaccoud, and many others. A bacillus described as an anaerobic, with more or less motility, similar to the anthrax bacillus, has been described by Achalme. This bacillus, when injected into animals, has reproduced symptoms resembling rheumatism. Thus this observer believes he has found the specific agent causing this disease.

Other causes have been described as the result of defective assimilation, which produces lactic acid or combinations of it. Another theory is the so-called *nervous theory*, in which the nerve centers are primarily affected by cold, and the local lesions are atrophic in character.

This nervous disturbance brings about hurtful metabolism, so that the nitrogenous products, instead of being converted into urea, are transformed into uric acid and other poisonous products which cause these symptoms.

Whether or not heredity bears any relationship to the cause of this disease may be considered by the fact that in two-thirds of the cases, diseases of a similar type can be traced to the ancestors. Gouty parents will usually have rheumatic children. The disease is very common in children, and has also been observed in nurslings.

Rheumatism occurs more often in the spring of the year. When the disease has commenced, it usually lays the foundation for future attacks; in other words, one attack of rheumatism predisposes to future attacks of the disease.

The tonsils have frequently been looked upon as the seat of entrance of this disease; thus acute tonsillitis has frequently been followed by acute articular rheumatism. In the same manner endocarditis has frequently followed an attack of tonsillitis. It is therefore safe to assume that the specific entrance of an infection can originate in a diseased tonsil.

Packard has described a series of cases of endocardial inflammation following tonsillitis. He regards a serous inflammation as due to the germs or other toxins entering the circulation through inflamed tonsils.

Bacteriology.—Triboulet and Coyon[1] give the results of their bacteriologic examinations in 11 cases of acute articular rheumatism. They discovered in all these cases a diplococcus or diplobacillus which they state cannot be well described as to its cultural peculiarities, as its growth is so irregular.

The organism exhibits great plesiomorphism and resembles most closely in character the diplococcus pneumoniæ, but differs from it in that it can be kept alive for a considerable length of time, and that it is not pathogenic for mice. The organism is extremely pathogenic for rabbits, and the authors give a detailed account of its effects on a rabbit. The animal died twenty days after intravenous inoculation. Death was due to heart failure resulting from an absolute mitral insufficiency. During life there was an oscillatory temperature. The autopsy showed fresh pleuritis and pericarditis, and an acute vegetative endocarditis with tremendous masses of vegetations on the mitral valve. The vegetations microscopically showed many diplobacilli similar to those originally inoculated, and cultures from the organs also showed it. Other rabbits inoculated with smaller doses from other cases showed irregular fever, disturbances of the heart, and pleurisy, but did not die.

Symptoms.—The symptoms are entirely different from those met with in adults. The fever is not so high, usually between 100° and 102° F. The swelling of the joints is moderate, and there is not the redness and inflammation visible to the eye as we see it in adults. The pains are not severe in all cases, and there are less joints involved as a rule than we find in adults. We therefore meet with a great many cases of rheumatism that walk around suffering slight pains. Sometimes the lower extremities are affected, at other times the disease is limited to the upper extremities. A child may walk apparently lame or an infant may cry when put on its feet. Jacobi years ago directed the attention of the profession to the necessity of carefully watching every case of so-called "growing pains." He believed, and correctly so, that the majority of these cases were in reality rheumatism. The most frequent symptoms are vomiting, fever, general malaise, anorexia, in addition to multiple arthropathy.

Rheumatism a Sequela to Tonsillitis.—That rheumatism is frequently a sequel to tonsillitis has been noted by many observers. Packard, of Philadelphia, has reported a series of cases in which the throat was first affected and later heart disease was distinctly manifested. Emil Mayer, of New York City, has also reported a series of cases in which the tonsils were the ments render children peculiarly susceptible to this disease. Proper ventilation, without incurring any draught, is urgently demanded. Cool or tepid bathing or sponging has a very good effect on the skin. Unnecessary and useless *hardening of children*, by exposing them to cold baths in cold rooms, without proper protection, will certainly invite this disease.

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[1] Comptes Rendus de la Societé de Biologie, February 4, 1898.

Dietetic Treatment.—Milk and milk foods; cereals and fruits, especially acid fruits; broths and all soups made from meat are indicated. For thirst, buttermilk, and all fermented milks, seltzer and milk, alkaline waters, lithia, apollinaris, white rock, lemonade, and orangeade.

Medicinal Treatment.—The alkaline treatment known as Fuller's method has been abandoned many years ago. The first thing to do is to cleanse the gastro-intestinal tract. A wineglassful or more, depending on the age of the child, of citrate of magnesia, repeated every two hours, until its effect is produced. Rhubarb and soda, 5- to 10- grain doses, or calomel, is valuable. Salicylate of soda, 3 grains every three hours, for a child 3 years old. Older children in proportion. This treatment should be continued two or three days, if the drug is well borne:—

℞ Natr. salicylat.	1 drachm
Elix. lactopeptin	2 ounces

M. Sig.: One drachm every three hours may be given.

Salol or salophen, in doses of 2 to 5 grains, is indicated. Aspirin or novatophan in doses of 3 to 10 grains may be given every three hours. Cotton saturated with the oil of wintergreen applied over the affected joints, the whole covered with oil-silk, is recommended.

Fever.—Fever requires the same treatment in this disease as in all others. Cold sponging of the surface will do good.

Restorative Treatment.—The profound anæmia caused by this disease is an indication for early restorative treatment. We should therefore aid nutrition by giving cream, butter, and, if tolerated, codliver-oil, with or without malt. Iron and iodide of sodium are good restoratives. Fellows' syrup of the hypophosphites may be tried. The application of leeches, blisters, or sinapisms sometimes does good. Ice-bags applied over inflamed joints will reduce swelling, remove heat, and have a very soothing effect.

An ice-bag applied over the heart if endocarditis complicates has served me quite well in some cases. For the management of heart complications, see chapter on "Heart Diseases."

It is vital to stimulate the action of the kidneys. For this reason I have previously mentioned the alkaline mineral waters. If a diuretic is indicated none is better than Basham's mixture. See formula in chapter on "Scarlet Fever," page 627.

The following ointment is useful applied on gauze to the affected joint:—

℞ Methyl salicylate	1 part
Vaseline	10 parts

Mix.

Apply morning and evening.

Warm Bathing.—By adding sulphur in the form of kalium sulphuret, about 1 ounce to an infant's bath-tub of water, and bathing the affected joints at a temperature of 95° to 100° F., is sometimes very grateful and well borne. It is not advisable to make sudden changes in the local treatment. If ice-bags have been used and are well borne, they should be continued. Sulphur baths, so also pine-needle baths, are very grateful in the evening, and sometimes promote sleep. When pains are very severe, full doses of codeine or chloralamid may be given. It is seldom that so much truth is contained in a single sentence as in the following from Cheadle: "The various manifestations of rheumatism massed together in the case of adults tend to become isolated in the case of children, so that the whole phenomena are distributed over years instead of weeks or months, and the history of a rheumatism may be the history of a whole childhood"

Muscular Rheumatism (Myalgia).

This painful condition is rarely seen in children. It is characterized by pain when the muscles affected are brought into play. When the disease affects the muscles of the neck it is called acute torticollis. When the intercostal muscles are affected it is called pleurodynia. When the lumbar muscles are affected it is called lumbago. Peculiar contractions of the muscles frequently follow persistent muscular rheumatism and sometimes cause permanent deformity (see chapter on "Torticollis"). Infants so affected usually cry when the group of muscles involved are moved. There is no fever present.

R. K., 16 years old, was attacked with a severe tonsillitis. The cervical glands were enlarged and tender on palpation. Creosote inhalations and unguentum Credé rubbed into the glands of the neck relieved this condition. Two days later after going out into the street she had violent muscular pains involving the back, groin, and muscles of the thigh. It was a distinct lumbago and a general myalgia. There was also a painful sciatica. With the aid of massage and the internal administration of 5 grains (0.3) salophen every four hours these pains gradually subsided. After these pains left there were pains involving the intercostal muscles, so that we had a lumbago followed by pleurodynia. Rest in bed, warmth, and massage relieved this condition permanently.

Treatment.—Local treatment consisting of massage aided by gentle faradic electricity is very useful. Warm, moist fomentations, such as flaxseed meal poultices, are very soothing and seem to do good. The internal administration of salicylate of soda has not seemed to benefit my cases. Codeine in $^1/_{10}$ to $^1/_{15}$-grain doses, repeated every two or three hours, can be given until the pain ceases. In some cases chloral hydrate combined with bromide of sodium will afford relief. Rubbing the affected muscles with ol. hyoscyamus seems to relieve.

TORTICOLLIS (WRY-NECK).

This condition is caused by the spasm of one sterno-cleido-mastoid muscle. Sometimes there may be a spasm of the posterior cervical muscle, including the trapezius.

Etiology.—Congenital torticollis is a rare condition. When it is present it is due, according to Whitman, to a constrained condition in utero.

More common than the congenital condition is the acquired torticollis. The following is Whitman's classification:—

1. The acute. 2. The chronic.

Acute torticollis (traumatic torticollis) may be divided into three classes:—

(a) "Stiff neck," due to "cold" or to rheumatism.

(b) Distortion caused by strain or other injuries.

(c) Distortion due to irritation of the peripheral nerves as following "sore throat," or secondary, to enlarged or suppurating cervical glands, and the like ("reflex torticollis").

The ordinary stiff-neck is of but slight importance. The traumatic wry-neck is efficiently treated by support. Reflex torticollis is by far the most important of the forms of acute torticollis, and it is the usual cause of persistent distortion.

Chronic Torticollis.—From the clinical standpoint, both the congenital and the reflex torticollis, after the acute stage has passed, are forms of chronic torticollis; the class includes also those forms in which the onset has not been accompanied by pain.

Rachitic torticollis, usually a postural or compensatory distortion caused by deformity of the spine.

Ocular torticollis, caused by defective eyesight.

Psychical torticollis, a functional or hysterical deformity.

Spasmodic torticollis, a convulsive *tic*—rather a form of nervous disease than a simple deformity.

Any irritation of the spinal accessory nerve or its branches may bring on this spasm. Whitman[1] gives the following statistics of 264 cases extending over nineteen years, torticollis from Pott's disease not being included: Males, 109; females, 155; congenital, 32; under 2 years, 33; from 2 to 10 years, 153; over 10 years, 46; acute (less than two months' duration), 77; chronic, 60, of which number 22 had lasted over two years or longer.

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[1] Report for Hospital of Ruptured and Crippled, New York.

Holt believes that an enlarged cervical lymph gland irritating the spinal accessory nerve can bring on this spasm. He also mentions malaria as a cause. I have observed similar conditions. In several of my cases the spasm was present when malarial infection existed, and subsided when quinine was given. Torticollis has also been observed by me after the sudden chilling of the body.

Symptoms.—The head is drawn to the affected side. If the trapezius is affected there is slight rotation of the head, but if the trapezius is not affected the head is rotated toward the healthy side.

A child 6 years old was taken on an open car. She was in a healthy condition, appetite good, bowels regular, apparently nothing wrong. She complained of being cold and on the following day had a wry-neck. Salicylate of soda, in 5-grain doses three times a day, and massage of the sterno-cleido-mastoid with spirits of camphor seemed to relieve the pain. The best result was obtained by the use of a mild faradic current. The condition lasted about nine days. The child was discharged cured.

The above case illustrates the form commonly described as rheumatism or "rheumatic torticollis."

Treatment.—*Medicinal and Local:* Early treatment means success. Delayed treatment means disappointment in most instances. When specific causes exist, such as malaria or rheumatism, they should be treated by specific remedies. In every case warmth, as flaxseed poulticing and massage, will do good. Sometimes the application of iodine over the affected muscles will do good.

Surgical Treatment.—Lorenz describes the fine results attained by subcutaneous intentional rupture of the sterno-cleido-mastoid muscle to cure obstinate wry-neck in children. The subject lies with a hard cushion under the shoulders, the head and neck unsupported. The shoulder is drawn down at the same time and it is thus possible to tear the muscle by gradual dehiscence, followed by over-correction. Parents accept this operation much more readily than when the knife is used, and the dehiscent fibers heal under the intact skin with little if any cicatricial formation. The cure has been ideal and permanent in all his cases.

PURPURA.

Hæmorrhages into the skin or mucous membrane are designated as purpura. When small they are called petechial; when large they are called ecchymoses. Purpura is frequently associated with the infectious diseases.

Martha B., 7 years old, was brought to the Willard Parker Hospital August 31, 1903. She had been ill two days before admission. The diagnosis of nasal diphtheria was made. On admission the pulse was 158. Two days later it dropped to 90, and on the third day the pulse-rate sank from 96 to 66. A general purpura was notice-

able. There were bluish discolorations of the skin visible on the extremities. Dr. Burckhalter, the resident physician, called my attention to a hæmaturia. The case ended fatally.

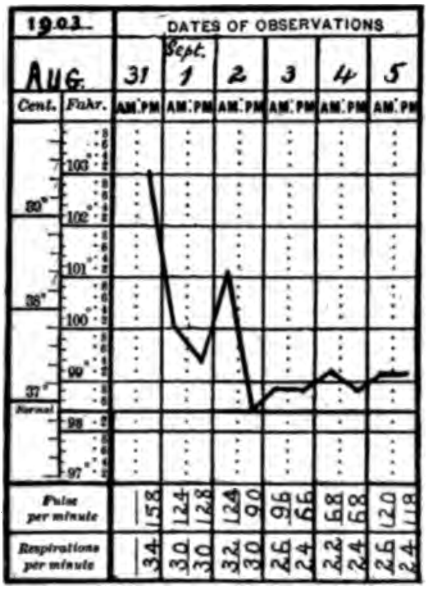

Fig. 232.—Malignant Purpura Complicating Nasal Diphtheria. General sepsis. Toxic Nephritis, meningitis, myocarditis. Note pulse. Fatal. (Original.)

Purpura Hæmorrhagica (Morbus Maculosus Werlhofii.)

This is the most severe form of purpura. The lesions are a series of hæmorrhages confined to the mucous membrane and skin. On the skin purpuric spots are seen which denote hæmorrhages. These hæmorrhages are seen in the lower and upper extremities; also on the face and abdomen. The conjunctival mucous membrane shows ecchymotic areas. The gums bleed easily and there are hæmorrhagic areas on the soft and hard palate. Hæmaturia and hæmoptysis are sometimes seen.

Diagnosis.—The only disease that might be taken for purpura is scurvy, but the general history of the case associated with malnutrition will clear up any doubt.

Treatment.—Rest, iron, small doses of ergot and hydrastis internally, lemons, oranges, and a nutritious diet. Aromatic sulphuric acid in 5-drop doses, several times a day, should be remembered.

Purpura Rheumatica (Peliosis Rheumatica: Schönlein's Disease).

The association of hæmorrhages with affections of the joints characterizes this disease. It has frequently been noted that there is tenderness in the joints during the course of simple purpura. But the more pronounced form of fever, in conjunction with swellings and tenderness of the joints, *plus* the characteristic appearance of the subcutaneous hæmorrhages appearing in purpuric spots, differentiate peliosis from simple purpura.

Associated with this rheumatic affection we frequently have extravasations of blood and serous effusions into the joints, giving a decided fluctuating feeling. One very important point is the fact that cardiac lesions do not complicate this condition. Cases of this kind have frequently been reported, and Baginsky lays stress on the non-existence of heart lesions *in this* affection.

The following case came under my observation[1]:—

A child, George P., about 9 years old, was attacked with pains in his feet and cried when attempting to walk. He had had some very violent exercise during the four or five weeks preceding this attack by riding a bicycle as much as four and five hours daily. The mother stated to me that he had frequently complained of joint pains, but she attributed them to "growing." She noted, however, that after bicycle riding the boy's pain was much more intense. His general condition was otherwise healthy. The examination gave me the following status:—

A very well nourished boy: muscular and adipose tissues quite well developed, and very tall for his age. His weight was 84 pounds. The examination of the thorax showed both heart and lungs normal; no cough; heart sounds regular, strong; pulse, 96. The temperature was 100.2 in the rectum, and respiration 36. The tongue was slightly coated; appetite good; bowels always inclined to constipation; but recently since riding the bicycle, very much improved. Intellect free, and the boy is mentally well developed.

The examination of the joints showed severe tenderness and swelling in both knees and ankles; slight pain on palpating or rotating the hip joint. The most marked tenderness and swelling was found at the knee joints. The upper extremities—shoulder, elbow and wrist—were perfectly normal, as far as palpation and inspection could demonstrate. The eruption on the skin was of a purplish or bluish color, and looked like a distinct subcutaneous hæmorrhage. It was confined to the lower extremities, covering almost completely the inner portions of both thighs, the ankles, and more especially the calves of both legs. The spots were very irregular in outline, in some places confluent, resembling more particularly the eruption of morbilli.

The child was put to bed, the joints were rendered immobile by applying woolen roller bandages over them, and locally over each joint some salicylic collodion, 10 per cent., was applied with a camel's-hair brush.

The main point in the treatment which I laid stress upon was to have *absolute rest*, and it was for this reason that I put the child to bed, that I painted salicylic collodion, and that I put a roller (flannel) bandage on the legs and covered both limbs from the toes to the hip joint. Internally I gave ergotine, $^1/_{50}$ grain every four hours, besides 15 drops of tinct. ferri acet. æth. in water after each meal, three times a day. The spots gradually changed from a deep bluish color to a brown; then after ten days to a light yellowish color, and after twenty-seven days they could scarcely be seen with the naked eye.

This case has a very interesting clinical history. The question that arose in my mind was: Did the violent exercise on the bicycle cause the inflammation of the joints and possibly also the subcutaneous hæmorrhages? On looking over the previous history of the child, I found that he had been well nourished. breast-fed until eleven months, and then weaned; commenced walking at 1 year, and talking at same age. Dentition began at seven months, and when eight months had two lower and two upper incisors; the child had seven teeth at eleven months, at time of weaning.

There is no sign of rickets, although there is a large belly, rather pendulous, and the previous history of constipation. The ribs are normal, the long bones well developed; spine and thorax as good as desired. I could obtain no data concerning time of closure of fontanels. There is no history of hæmophilia; no previous bleeding; no epistaxis; no hæmoptysis; both parents of the child living, and both healthy. The child has had measles, complicated with bronchitis, when 3 years old, lasting in all about one month. No disease previous to this; no summer complaint, and nothing since that time.

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[1] Pediatrics, vol. ix, No. 10, 1900.

There is no evidence of scurvy; teeth are well developed, perfectly normal; the gums are healthy. The mother had two other children—one now nursing and one $4^1/_2$ years old. She has had no miscarriages; no reason to suspect lues.

I believe the etiological factor in this case was the traumatic element, namely, the violent exercise causing both the hæmorrhages and the inflammatory affection of the joints.

HENOCH'S PURPURA.

Hæmorrhagic areas confined to the abdomen and lower extremities are sometimes seen. There is also vomiting and abdominal symptoms, such as diarrhœa (bloody stools) and colicky pains. There is marked distension of the abdomen and pains in the joints. This condition resembles that which has already been described in the article on "Purpura Rheumatica."

LITHÆMIA (LITHURIA).

Haig and Rachford have given us a very clear conception of this condition, which is simply an excess of uric (lithic) acid in the blood. Haig designates this condition as uricacidæmia. Other writers call it lithuria. Rachford calls this "leucomain poisoning."

Etiology.—When this condition is met with in children, we can usually look to the lithæmic ancestors for the origin of the disease. Imprudent diet, such as excess of proteids, may be a factor. Sedentary life and lack of proper metabolism invite this condition. The alloxuric bodies are excreted by the skin, kidneys, and intestinal canal. These bodies are removed by the kidney cells from the blood into the urine. When they are in excess they must, therefore, have been present in solution in the blood before their elimination.

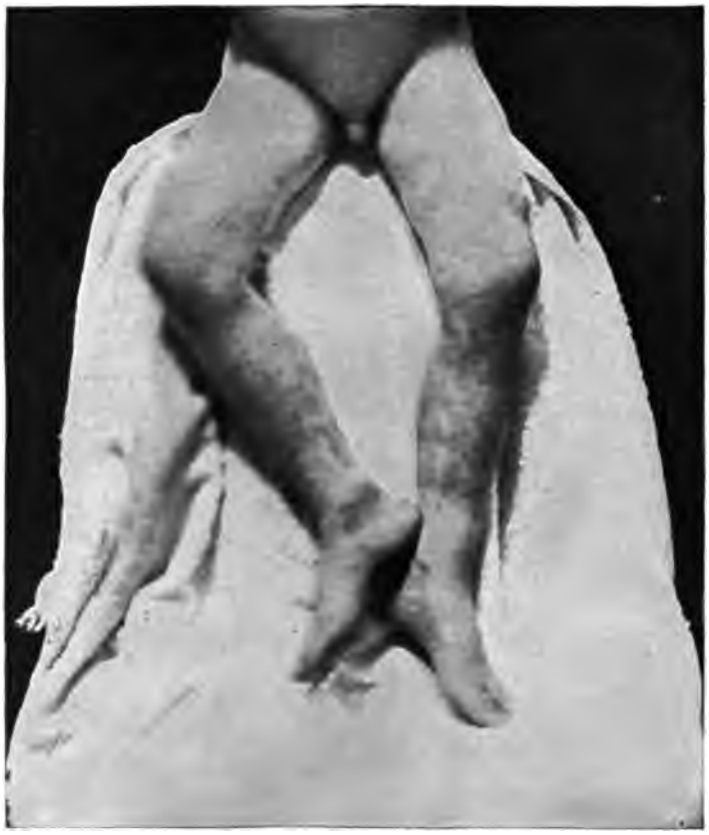
The presence of uric or lithic acid, xanthin, hypoxanthin, heteroxanthin, and paroxanthin are the factors causing this trouble. We are still in the dark concerning the manner in which these bodies act.

If the kidneys are diseased these bodies are retained and the skin is called upon to do the work which the kidneys fail to do. Thus it is that hot baths which promote diaphoresis eliminate through the skin, in addition to stimulating the action of the kidneys.

Symptoms.—The new-born lithæmic infant frequently eliminates an excess of urates during the first few days of life. In such infants crystals of uric acid may be precipitated into the tubules of the pyramids of the kidney. Jacobi says that these uric acid infarctions may subsequently be washed out of the tubules and serve as the nuclei of urinary calculi.

Nocturnal incontinence is frequently a symptom of lithæmia. True

PLATE XXXIII



Henoch's Purpura. Note ecchymotic spots on lower extremities. (Original.)

arthritic gout resulting from uratic deposits in the tissues about the joints is very rare in childhood.

Fever, crying while the child passes urine, scanty urine which usually deposits a reddish sand on the diaper, and irritation of the external genitals are the symptoms which appear at the time of urination. The urine is very acid and we speak of this condition as "a uric acid form of lithæmia." Sometimes there are gastro-enteric manifestations, such as vomiting, headache, gastric pain, convulsions, a sickening odor of the breath, and constipation. These gastric symptoms bear no relation to improper diet. They are usually met with in children who are carefully guarded as to the diet. Such children are extremely nervous and irritable. Eczema is a very common manifestation of this condition. Unless a proper understanding of this condition exists it will persist and be difficult to relieve.

The urine in lithæmia is high colored; the specific gravity increased. On standing, there is a sediment of red sand (urates). If the urine is examined immediately after a paroxysm then the poisonous xanthin bodies previously mentioned may be found present. Transient albuminuria is occasionally met with.

Treatment.—The diet is the most important part of the treatment. Cereals must be given; beef juice, soups, broths, and fruits. No alcoholics should be given; in fact, all rich and heavy articles of food must be excluded. Meat must be given sparingly. Salads and gravies are objectionable. Infants require massage. This passive form of exercise will stimulate the circulation. If children are old enough to exercise, then exercise should form an important part of the treatment.

Drug Treatment.—Calomel should always be given in the commencement of the treatment. We must aid in keeping the bowels loose during the whole course of treatment.

Salicylate of soda and salol are useful eliminatives. Phosphate of sodium and benzoate, especially if eczema exists, are valuable. Alkaline waters, such as white rock and apollinaris, may be given *ad libitum*. The Carlsbad waters have the same eliminative effect. Dilute hydrochloric acid or dilute phosphoric acid in 3 to 5-drop doses before meals is especially indicated when severe headache and gastric symptoms exist. Urotropin in 2-grain doses may be given in tablet form.

HÆMOPHILIA.

This is usually an inherited condition. It is characterized by a tendency to bleed, hence the term "bleeder" is applied to this class of cases. Whole families are found in which this tendency to bleed exists.

Pathology.—The walls of the blood-vessels show no alteration, either macroscopically or microscopically. "The swelling of the joints is due to hæmorrhages into the articulations and into the surrounding tissues. The tissues are blanched from loss of blood." The surface of the body shows petechiæ or bruised patches.

Symptoms.—The appearance of the child does not always disclose the tendency to bleed. It is only when an operation is performed, or an injury exists, that alarming and frequently fatal hæmorrhages are seen. Epistaxis is the most common symptom noted. Swelling of the joints resembling rheumatism is frequently seen. The bleeding takes place from the capillaries, most often an oozing which may continue for weeks. The subjects of hæmophilia are sensitive to cold.

In the chapter on "Syphilis" I have already described a case of bleeding in which the lesions of *syphilis* were present.

Annie G., 13 years old, was breast-fed in infancy. She had diphtheria when 1 year old. Had pertussis when 2 years old, which lasted nine weeks. Has had pneumonia twice. No history of rheumatism given and has had no other infectious disease.

History of Bleeding.—Has always been troubled with hæmorrhages. The nose bleeds at the slightest provocation. Blood spitting is quite common. The slightest irritation of the bowels with looseness is associated with blood in the stools. Large varicose veins are found over the legs. There are a number of scattered nævi. Not infrequently the veins of the legs bleed daily for a period of twenty or thirty days.

The Heart.—There is a loud systolic murmur heard in front and behind, and transmitted to the side. This endocarditis is a sequela to the attack of diphtheria. The child's weight when seen by me was 67 pounds. Stypticin seemed to do more good than ergot internally. Hydrastinine hydrochlorate, 1/4 grain three times a day, seemed to check the bleeding during another attack. When last seen by me the child was developing fairly well.

Prognosis.—This depends on the frequency of the hæmorrhages and the child's general condition. In 152 cases reported by Grandidier more than one-half died before completing the seventh year, and only nineteen attained majority.[1]

Treatment.—All operations, no matter how slight, should be avoided if possible. Even the extraction of a tooth must be seriously considered, owing to the danger of bleeding.

The *diet* should consist principally of vegetables and fruits. When bleeding occurs, immediate treatment, consisting of ice and Monsell's solution, should be used locally. Internally, gallic acid and hydrastine, ⅛ grain, repeated every three or four hours. If intestinal hæmorrhage exists, colon flushings of iced water, temperature of 50° F., containing 1 drachm of alum to 1 pint of water, may be tried. An injection of 15 to 25 cubic centimeters human blood serum is an excellent hæmostatic. If this cannot be secured then an injection of 15 to 30 cubic centimeters of sterile horse serum may be given. In the case of a "bleeder," recently seen by me in the Babies' Wards of the Sydenham Hospital, one injection of horse serum controlled the hæmorrhage due to a paracentesis, after all local means failed.

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[1] See article in "Starr's Textbook."

CHAPTER IV.

DISEASES OF THE GLANDS OR LYMPH NODES.

THE THYMUS GLAND.

THIS long lobulated gland is similar in structure to the salivary glands. It lies in the anterior mediastinum, immediately behind the manubrium of the sternum. The thymus reaches its full development during the second year, after which it gradually disappears. The function of the thymus is still a question, although it is believed to have a function similar to the spleen. Sudden death has frequently been attributed to an enlarged thymus. Tuberculosis involving the thymus gland is occasionally seen in current literature.

STATUS LYMPHATICUS.

This condition is found in rachitic children, and is of especial interest because of the enlarged glands at the angle of the jaw in addition to the adenoids in the vault of the pharynx, and enlargement of the lingual tonsil.

The cervical, bronchial, axillary, or the inguinal glands are enlarged. There is also a tendency to swelling of the parts. Enlarged lymph nodes at the angle of the jaw and hyperplasia of the connective tissue of the nose and pharynx are seen.

The thymus gland is very much swollen, and this is believed to be the cause of sudden death in many cases.

Escherich believes that the pathological condition of the thymus gland causes a form of acute intoxication resulting in cardiac syncope and paralysis. This condition must not be confounded with scrofulosis.

Escherich has reported a case in which laryngeal spasm occurred thirty times a day. In such cases the danger of asphyxia should be borne in mind. The condition is of importance because of the danger involved during the administration of an anæsthetic.

The following case was seen by me in consultation with Dr. A. W. Newfield during the summer of 1904:—

The infant was breast-fed, but did not seem to nurse well. The lymph nodes at the angle of the jaw, the groin, axilla, and various portions of the scalp could be plainly felt. The child had laryngeal spasms. Had had as many as twenty-five or thirty attacks of laryngismus stridulus. The adenoid tissue at the base of the tongue was enlarged. There was also a mass of adenoids in the posterior nares. The posterior pharyngeal wall was studded with fungous granulations. The infant had a very short, thick neck. The nurse in charge was always afraid the infant would die during these spasms. It was necessary to gavage to sustain life. By pumping some of the breast-milk and using cows' milk for alternate feedings we gradually strengthened the infant.

Codliver-oil inunctions were ordered to aid in the nutrition of the body.

When such a condition is found, great care must be exercised so as not to lower the vitality of the patient, but rather to stimulate nutrition by giving arsenic in the form of Fowler's solution in addition to iodide of sodium.

DISEASES OF THE THYMUS GLAND.

In rare instances the thymus gland may persist until the twentieth year or even later in life. When such a condition exists, mechanical pressure has caused dyspnœa of a serious nature. Asthma has been reported by some clinicians in which an enlarged thymus was found; hence the term "thymic asthma." Sudden death has occasionally been caused by an enlarged thymus. This has been especially noted in children with rickets. Abscesses have been reported in the thymus by Dubois. Syphilis and tuberculosis have rarely been found.

Reich says: "The absolute dullness of the thymus, as determined by light percussion, is irregularly triangular in outline, the base being made by the outline connecting the two sterno-clavicular articulations, the blunt apex situated at the level of the second rib or slightly below it, and the sides a little beyond the edges of the sternum. The larger half of this triangle of dullness usually falls to the left side. When the limits of dullness, as given above, vary by one or more centimeters, or obscure the pulmonary resonance between the upper line of cardiac dullness and the lower lateral limits of thymus dullness, an enlargement of the thymus is probable. The thymus dullness is present until the end of the fifth year, after which it is inconstant."

Diagnosis.—The diagnosis of diseases of the thymus gland is frequently impossible. An infiltration or swelling of the area surrounded by the thymus gives rise to symptoms of dyspnœa, from pressure upon the pneumogastric nerve. The same symptoms are also found when the thymus itself is enlarged. When the lymph glands in the anterior mediastinum are swollen, dullness on percussion is rare unless there is a cheesy infiltration of the lymph glands, according to Reich.

Treatment.—Symptomatic treatment only should be instituted. The iodide of sodium in very large doses may be tried.

ACUTE ADENITIS.

This inflammatory condition of the lymphatics is quite common. It is usually caused by an infection, or an abrasion of the skin, permitting an infection in or about the glands affected.

The cervical glands are most frequently affected.

Inflammatory conditions in the nose, throat, the mouth, or on the skin give rise to these swellings.

The axillary glands are frequently swollen, due to septic absorption following vaccination.

The glands of the thigh and the inguinal glands are commonly affected when there are irritations or inflammatory lesions involving the genitals, or the lower extremities.

Pathology.—The glands show swelling and infiltration with inflammatory products. The immediate tissues are usually involved. Very frequently the swollen glands resolve. At other times there is an excessive migration of white cells so that the glands break down and abscess results.

Symptoms.—The glands *per se* may show inflammatory symptoms, such as fever, tenderness, and swelling. It is wise to examine the adjacent parts to be sure that the glands are not a secondary inflammatory condition. For example, in diphtheria the neighboring glands are usually swollen. If the gland only is involved, we have no evidence of reddening or inflammation. When inflammation exists involving the neighboring tissues, a reddening of the skin takes place. Such cases usually have fluctuations, or soft areas can be made out. The glands are swollen, at times reaching the size of a hen's egg.

The diagnosis is very easily made.

The prognosis depends on the condition of the child at the time of infection. If tuberculosis exists, the prognosis is bad. The prognosis of acute adenitis in conjunction with acute exanthemata is usually good.

Treatment.—(a) *Abortive;* (b) *surgical.*

Abortive.—The inunction of Credé ointment has served me very well. A piece of the salve about the size of a bean should be well rubbed into the swollen gland. The rubbing should be continued at least ten minutes. Sometimes a leech applied to a gland will reduce the swelling. An ice-bag will reduce swelling and sometimes prevent suppuration. Belladonna ointment and ichthyol, 10 per cent., with lanoline is sometimes useful.

Surgical Treatment.—When fluctuation is felt, hot fomentations with flaxseed meal will be very grateful. An incision should be made, with aseptic detail, pus evacuated, and the wound packed with iodoform gauze.

Later restorative treatment, such as malt, iron, codliver-oil, or the syrup of the iodide of iron, should be given.

Chronic Adenitis.

Not infrequently we meet with children who have swollen glands lasting months and years in whom no evidence of tuberculosis or syphilis exists.

This is usually due to repeated attacks of inflammation following acute adenitis, or it is the result of chronic inflammation of the skin.

Pathology.—The glands show an increase in their cellular and connective-tissue elements. They undergo a true hyperplasia.

Symptoms.—The symptoms consist in a swelling of the glands without inflammation or tenderness. In chronic adenitis the glands do not break down; hence suppuration is absent. In conjunction with chronic enlarged glands, we find hyperplasia of the tonsils, so that we invariably have enlarged tonsils and adenoids in such conditions.

Diagnosis.—The diagnosis should be made after syphilis, tuberculosis, and other infections, such as diphtheria and scarlet fever, have been excluded, so that we can be sure no specific or infectious disease is the origin of the trouble.

The prognosis is usually very good.

Treatment.—The treatment consists in removing the cause. Middle-ear inflammation, scalp disease, and pediculosis should be vigorously treated. Adenoids and diseased tonsils should be removed. Thus the treatment is narrowed down to removing the cause if possible and relying on restorative treatment, fresh air, and good nutrition.

TUBERCULAR ADENITIS.

This condition is due to an invasion of the tubercle bacillus, resulting in a tubercular manifestation of the glands. It was formerly believed to be "scrofulosis." The pharynx and tonsils seem to be the point of entrance, as the glands in the cervical region are usually affected.

Pathology.—The glands undergo a caseous degeneration which frequently results in abscess. At times we meet with tubercular lesions in various organs of the body. In the glands we note that they are studded with miliary tubercles and also find the tubercle bacillus therein.

Symptoms.—The glands enlarge in various parts of the body; most frequently the cervical glands are affected. It is usually a very slow process, extending over months; sometimes years. During this time, from the long-continued inflammation, evidence of a [illegible] is shown. When these abscesses [illegible], they heal very slowly and frequently leave sinuses or ragged scars.

Henry G., 2½ years old, was brought to my [illegible] service with a history of recurring swellings on both sides of the neck and [illegible] the ear. The child was born [illegible] and had always suffered with dyspeptic trouble and [illegible]. He has had tuberculosis of the [illegible] necessitated incisions, [illegible] year. Was troubled with [illegible] catarrhal trouble; also double otitis.

The glands of the neck are swollen and frequently break down and discharge pus. The temperature is not elevated. The suppuration is known as the cold abscess type. The general condition is fair. The child is taking maltine with hypophosphites. A restorative diet of cereals, cream, butter, eggs, etc., is given. Attention to hygiene and out-door life is the most important part of the treatment.

Diagnosis.—This can easily be made when we consider the character of the glandular swelling, their tendency to caseation, and to suppuration. When the pus is examined, tubercle bacilli are invariably found.

Differential Diagnosis.—In the beginning this disease is difficult to diagnose. We can exclude syphilis by the history of the parents. When the history is not obtainable, resorting to anti-syphilitic treatment will materially aid in eliminating the diagnosis of syphilis. In Hodgkin's disease the glands do not suppurate. In simple chronic adenitis there is no suppuration.

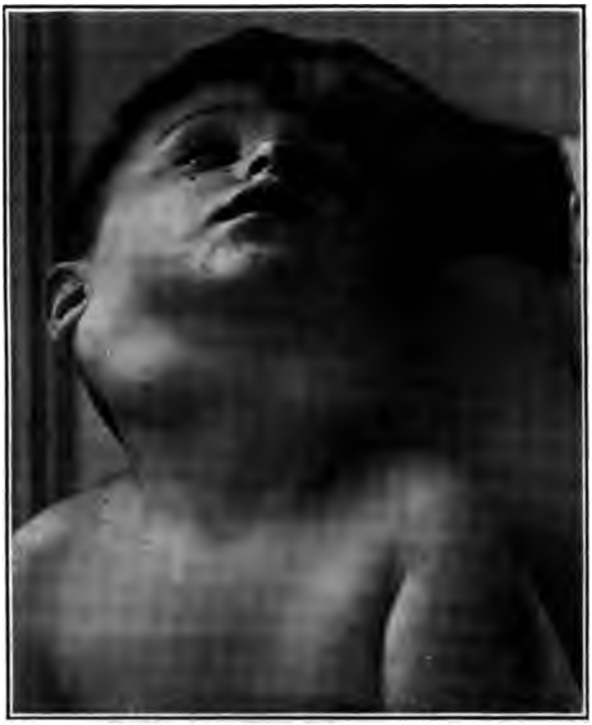

Fig. 233.—Case of Cervical Adenitis in which a Positive von Pirquet Reaction Appeared. (Original.)

Treatment.—Attention to hygienic details is of prime importance. The diet should consist of restorative foods in which proteins and fats abound. Restorative medication, such as iron, codliver-oil, iodide of sodium, and arsenic, and syrup of iodide of iron are the most useful drugs to be considered.

Read also the treatment outlined in the chapter on "Acute Miliary Tuberculosis."

The surgical treatment of tubercular adenitis should consist in the total removal of the suppurating glands, using aseptic precaution, rather than to rely on slow spontaneous evacuation of pus by Nature.

MUMPS (SPECIFIC PAROTITIS).

This is a specific febrile disease, characterized by inflammation of the salivary glands.

Etiology.—This disease is prevalent all over the world, occurring usually in the form of local epidemics. It is more marked during the cold and wet seasons than in the summer. Children between 10 and 15 years of age suffer most. Boys are more liable to be attacked than girls. Infantile parotitis is frequently met with. The nursing infant is not exempt from this condition.

The period of incubation, counting from the exposure to infection and the appearance of the disease, varies from fourteen to twenty-five days. It is usually about three weeks.

In New York City, children suffering from mumps are excluded from school until the swelling has entirely subsided. Children of the family who have not had the disease are excluded until the medical inspector recommends re-admission. Children in the family who have had the disease may remain in school.

How the Disease is Spread.—Contact seems to be the method of conveying the disease from person to person. School children and families are thus infected.

Pathology.—The disease is most likely due to an infection by a microorganism. The salivary glands are probably the seat of invasion.

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—The disease begins with fever lasting two or three days. The temperature may reach 104° F., although the usual temperature is about 101° F. The fever may be so pronounced that delirium accompanies the same. The most pronounced symptom is pain and tenderness in one parotid gland. The gland becomes swollen. The swelling occupies the space behind the angle of the jaw and below the ear, spreading forward on the cheek, and downward along the neck. The edge is ill defined, and the swelling itself is doughy to the touch.

Goodhart has reported cases in which the swelling was severe and the patient breathed with his mouth open. In such instances the tongue is dry and brown, but no serious import should be given thereto.

The swelling is confined to that portion of the neck between the jaw and the sterno-cleido-mastoid muscle. The center of the swelling is immediately under the lobe of the ear.

The swelling becomes so extreme and the pain so acute that the patient can hardly do more than separate the upper and lower jaw. The submaxillary gland on the same side becomes affected within a day or two and there is a large swelling below the jaw. Soon afterward the opposite parotid and submaxillary glands may also become involved. Goodhart states that a swelling of the cervical lymphatic glands may be the only local signs of mumps.

There is usually a general malaise. The swelling lasts four or five days and then subsides. Suppuration never results. The amount of saliva secreted is not lessened. In many cases it may be excessive.

Differential Diagnosis.—The glandular swelling in mumps has frequently been mistaken for diphtheria. In the latter disease the parotid glands are not affected. The patient rarely encounters difficulty in opening the mouth, even when the cervical lymph glands are enlarged.

The differential diagnosis between mumps and diphtheria must be made by a careful inspection of the fauces and tonsils and noting the absence or presence of membrane.

There are other conditions which may be accompanied by parotitis. In enteric and other fevers in various disorders of the abdominal cavity, one or both parotids may be inflamed. In these conditions, however, suppuration of the parotid gland may ensue.

Prognosis.—This is almost always favorable. Goodal and Washbourn state that during ten years in England and Wales there were but eighty deaths registered among the entire population. *These authors suspect diphtheria as the cause of most of these deaths, reported as mumps.*

Complications.—The *most disagreeable complication is orchitis.* This usually commences when the disease has progressed several weeks. It is accompanied by fever, sometimes chills. The body of the testicle and not the epidermis is involved. As a rule ice-bags or leeches aided by rest will relieve this condition. The attack usually lasts several days, but may be prolonged several weeks.

Treatment.—*Local:* Hot fomentations, consisting of ground flaxseed meal to which a few drops of laudanum have been added, are very grateful and well borne. They are to be applied between two thicknesses of cheesecloth. These poultices should be renewed at intervals of one-half hour. Among the newer local remedies, antiphlogistine, warmed and applied in the form of a salve, has been advocated.

The occasional application of a leech at the site of the swollen parotid will be found advantageous in some instances.

An ice-bag can sometimes be used to advantage. The local application of tincture of iodine can be recommended.

The inunction of:—

℞ Unguentum belladonna	6 drachms
Unguentum hydrarg. ciner	3 drachms

M. Ft. ungt.

To be rubbed in swollen glands every three or four hours, may be tried.

Another drug which is quite serviceable is ichthyol, to be applied several times a day, in the following manner:—

℞ Ammonium sulpho. ichthyol	2 drachms
Lanoline	1 ounce

M. Ft. unguentum.

To be thoroughly rubbed in swollen glands.

The local application of a 5 per cent. iodoform collodion painted over the inflamed region, several times a day, or a 10 per cent. salicylic collodion applied several times a day is at times beneficial.

The inunction of a 15 per cent. iodide of potassium ointment will be indicated if there is a suspicion of syphilis in the case.

Constitutional Treatment.—Rarely do we require internal medication in this disease. If, however, there is high fever, sponging the surface of the body or cold packs are indicated. The internal administration of a mild laxative, such as citrate of magnesia, is grateful and beneficial.

Five-grain tablets of rhubarb and magnesia will be required if constipation exists.

Owing to the infectious nature of this disease, the first rule should be to isolate. The isolation should be thorough and continued at least ten days from the beginning of the illness.

CHAPTER V.

DISEASES OF THE DUCTLESS GLANDS.

CRETINISM (MYXŒDEMATOUS IDIOCY—MYXŒDEMA).

CRETINISM is a form of idiocy associated with pachydermatous cachexia.

Etiology.—In my own cases psychical disturbances in the mother seemed to result in cretinism. Worriment and fright seemed to have some etiological relationship to the development of myxœdematous idiocy.

In two cases of mine the mother suffered with mental depression, constant worry, and hysterical symptoms during pregnancy.

Pathology.—We are indebted to Fletcher Beach for a series of careful post-mortem investigations which have thrown considerable light on the nature of this disease. We know that cretinism is due to the absence of the internal secretion of the thyroid gland. In some instances the gland is congenitally absent. This condition also results when the thyroid gland is removed by surgical means. It is safe, therefore, to assume that the loss of the function of the thyroid gland causes cretinism.

Holt believes that cretinism is in some instances associated with goiter. This disease occurs sporadically in our country.

Symptoms.—The characteristic manifestations are very apparent during the first year of a child's life. Sometimes distinct evidences of cretinism can be seen as early as the third month after birth. The child is short in stature and light in weight compared to the normal infant. The extremities, particularly the fingers, are short and thick. The lips are thick. The tongue is broad and thick, and constantly protrudes from the mouth. The fontanel is late in closing. The nose is broad, flat, and upturned. The nostrils are wide open. The hair is coarse and straight (straw-like). Dentition is delayed, and when the teeth do appear they are very poorly formed. The skin of the entire body is thick and dry, but does not pit on pressure.

The infant is stupid, and it is very noticeable that we are dealing with *deficient mental development.*

In the supra-clavicular regions there are regularly formed pads of fatty tissue, so that the neck is short and thick (Tuttle). The thyroid gland cannot be felt unless it contains a tumor. The abdomen is large and prominent and an umbilical hernia is frequently present.

Constipation of a very obstinate character is usually met with and persists for a long time. The temperature is subnormal. The thyroid gland is absent or cannot be felt. In palpating the thyroid region we can feel the trachea. In some cases there is a hypertrophied hypothenar eminence on the palms of the hands. The face in all cases has the prognathous expression (Koplik).

Diagnosis.—The value of an early diagnosis in this condition is more important than in any other disease with which we are brought in contact. The diagnosis can usually be confirmed after a short period of thyroid treatment. The specific results of treatment are more apparent in this condition than in any other infantile derangement with which we are confronted.

CASE I.—Frances P.[1] was referred to me by Dr. L. F. Haas. She was the seventh child of this family. All the other children were perfectly normal. The labor was normal. The child was born before the doctor arrived.

Family History.—The father is healthy. The mother is strong and healthy. During the pregnancy the mother constantly cried on account of family trouble. Her husband was out of work. The mother frequently had hysterics. Similar psychical disturbances were never present while pregnant with the six other children, who are all strong and healthy.

History Given by the Mother.—The mother noticed that the child had short limbs. That she was not bright mentally. That when 1½ years old she could neither walk, talk, nor support her head. The tongue was very thick and protruded almost constantly while awake, as well as when asleep. The hair did not grow. The nose was short and flattened. The skin was yellowish and dry. The child had a jaundiced appearance. Constipation since birth. The bowels were moved with difficulty. The infant was breast-fed until it was fifteen months old. Up to this time there was no sign of dentition. She was taken to the Babies' Hospital, which necessitated her being weaned from the breast. She remained in the hospital about two weeks. When sixteen months old, one month *after thyroid treatment* was commenced, the first tooth appeared. The child was successfully vaccinated at the end of the first year.

During its first year and up to the time that it was taken to the hospital, it did not suffer with any infectious disease.

My first examination was on December 8, 1902. The child at that time was 2 years, 2 months old. The following conditions were found:—

The child can neither walk nor talk. The tongue is very thick and protrudes constantly. The lips, the eyelids, and the skin of the face are thickened, coarse, and rough. The nose is short and flat. The skin has a yellowish jaundiced appearance. The fontanel is widely open both anteriorly and posteriorly. The face is broad and the eyes are set very wide apart. There is a marked depression on each side of the temporal bone. There is a marked frontal [illegible]. The child had nine teeth when twenty-two months old. As previously stated, the first tooth appeared one month after the thyroid treatment was commenced, or when the child was sixteen months [illegible]. The body is well developed [illegible]. There is no evidence of rachitis. The chest and spine show no evidence of [illegible]. The length of the body was [illegible] centimetres, or about 20 inches. The secretions of the body were very [illegible] constipation of a very obstinate form was encountered. There were several fatty growths in the sternocleidomastoid [illegible].

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[1] These cases of cretinism were presented by me at the Section of Pediatrics of the New York Academy of Medicine, February 11, 1904.

SPORADIC CRETINISM.

Fig. 234.—Child. Age 2 years, 2 months. (Original.)

Fig. 235.—Same child. Seven months after continued thyroid treatment. (Original.)

Fig. 236.—Same child. Age 3 years, 9 months. One year and seven months after continued thyroid treatment. (Original.)

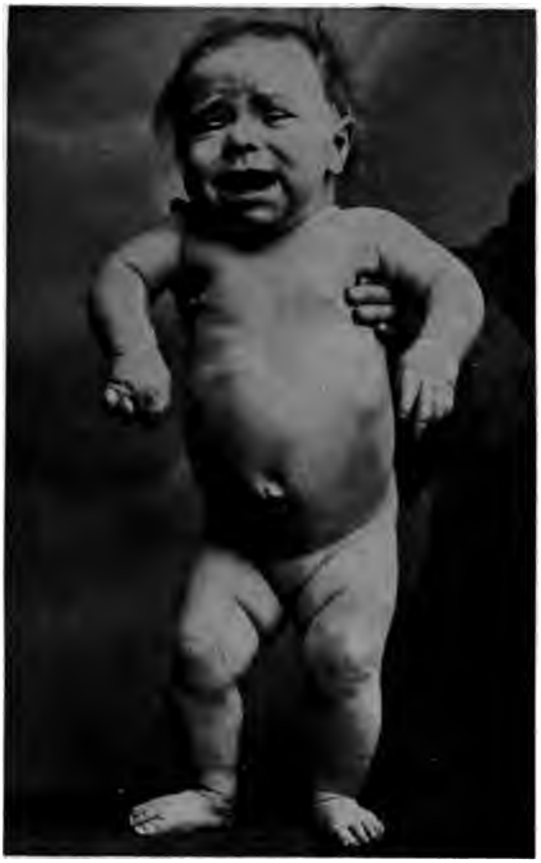

Fig. 234.

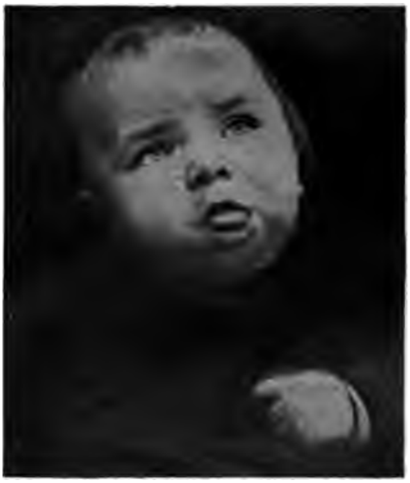

Fig. 235.

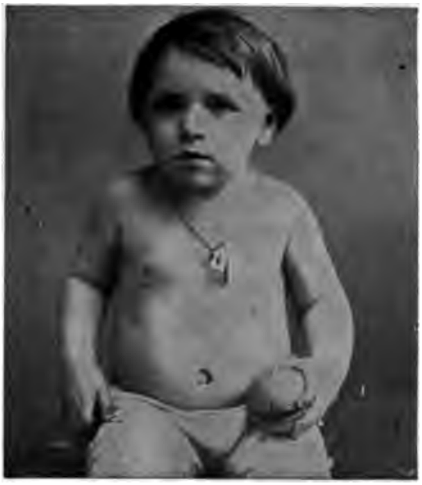

Fig. 236.

The child had a violent fear of water, so much so that the mother had difficulty in bathing her. The hair is very thick and straw-like. The thyroid gland cannot be felt.

The pulse was 90 and of a full bounding character. There was a subnormal temperature which was never higher than 98° F. in the rectum in the evening. Respiration was 16 while quiet and 24 while crying. The urine showed traces of indican, evidently due to the constipation. No albumin or sugar was found. Microscopically no uric acid crystals; no casts, and no bacteria were found.

When the treatment was first commenced, 1 grain of thyroid was given three times a day. This dose was rapidly increased so that after the first week the child took $2\frac{1}{2}$ grains three times a day. The heart was carefully watched and no disturbance noted from the quantity of thyroid given. In addition, 10 drops of pure codliver-oil was given three times a day. Cereals, milk, chicken soup, broths, and acid fruits, such as oranges, lemons, and cranberries, were ordered. Fresh air and bathing, with vigorous friction, concluded the hygienic treatment. Under this vigorous treatment the child developed very fast. The length of the body was $58\frac{1}{2}$ centimeters at the end of the first month of this treatment. The growth, therefore, in one month amounted to 8 centimeters or $3\frac{1}{5}$ inches. The obstinate constipation was improved and the bowels became regular. The teeth have appeared at regular intervals. The facial expression has changed. The child now commences to walk, as also to talk, she says "mamma" and "papa."

The fear of water and to be bathed is past. She no longer cries when she sees water. At the end of 1 year, the length of her body is 85 centimeters or $33\frac{1}{2}$ inches, so that she has grown in 1 year $34\frac{1}{2}$ centimeters or $13\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

The child is still taking thyroid and is progressing favorably.

TABLE NO. 74.—*Length and Growth of Body.*

Age.	Length of Body.	Gain in Growth of Body.
2 yrs and 2 mos.	$50\frac{1}{2}$ centimeters ($19\frac{7}{8}$ inches)	
2 yrs. and 3 mos.	$58\frac{1}{2}$ centimeters ($23\frac{1}{16}$ inches)	1 mo., 8 centimeters ($3\frac{1}{8}$ inches)
3 yrs. and 3 mos.	85 centimeters ($33\frac{1}{2}$ inches)	12 mos., $34\frac{1}{2}$ centimeters ($13\frac{1}{2}$ inches)

CASE II.—Rosie H., born January 1, 1902, now over 2 years old, was first seen by me when she was eighteen months old.

Family History.—Father living, is somewhat dyspeptic. Has no specific disease. The mother is a very nervous woman, otherwise in good health. This is her first child. She has had one other pregnancy of eight months which was still-born, believed to have been an asphyxia neonatorum. No miscarriages. No lues.

Child's History.—She was breast fed for seven months, later she received equal parts of milk and water. When first seen by me at the age of eighteen months, she was still fed on equal parts of milk and water. There has always been severe constipation, and streaks of blood have frequently been seen in the stool from severe tenesmus. The examination of the child at that time showed coarse, sparse hair, and a very rough skin. The tongue and the lips were very thick. The tongue was protruded from the mouth; breathing was difficult. There was constant drooling and the mouth was always open. The thorax was decidedly rachitic; there was a funnel-shaped depression, and also a kyphosis and an umbilicated hernia. The child could neither stand nor talk. There was no evidence of teething. The appetite was poor. The temperature was subnormal, 98 [illegible]° in the rectum. The pulse was

SPORADIC CRETINISM.

Fig. 237.—Child. Age 1 year, 5 months. (Original.)

Fig. 238.—Same child. Age 2 years. (Original.)

Fig. 239.—Same child. Age 3 years, 5 months. (Original.)

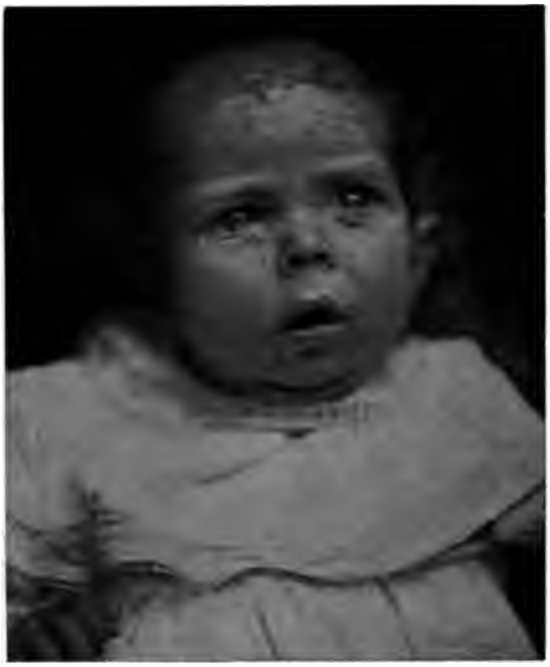

Fig. 237.

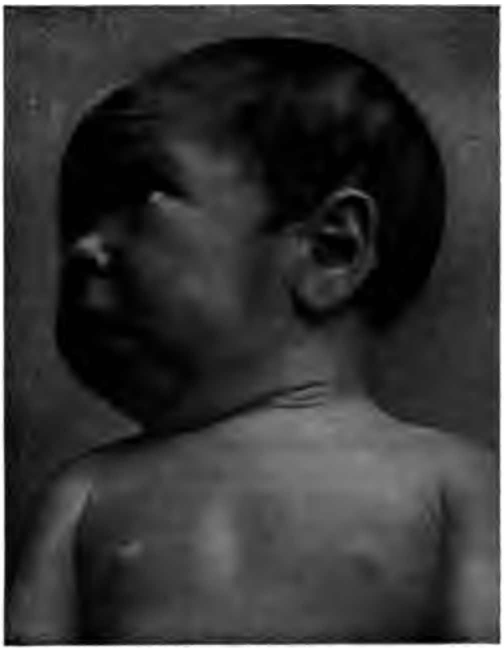

Fig. 238.

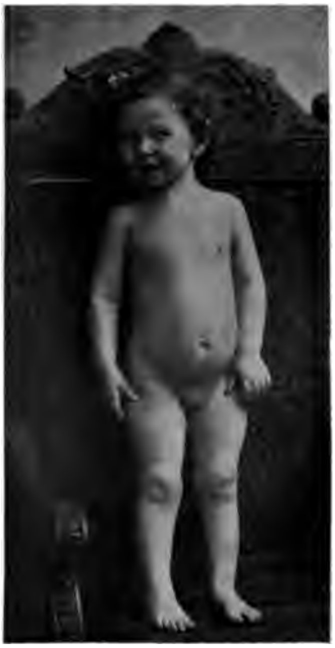

Fig. 239.

100, small, and feeble. The heart sounds muffled. A hæmic murmur was plainly heard at the apex and also in the vessels of the neck. It was impossible to secure a specimen of urine for examination. A drop of blood was examined and showed a decreased number of red blood-corpuscles and a marked leucocytosis. The diagnosis made was *sporadic cretinism.* The circulation was poor and there was a slight œdema constantly present. The feet and hands were frequently cyanotic, and always felt cold. The anterior fontanel was widely open. Growth was stunted as the length of the body was only 55 centimeters. The naked weight when 1 $^1/_2$ years old was 11 pounds 13 ounces. When first seen by me there was neither muscular nor bony development which could be considered normal. At eighteen months the child had had no teeth. At twenty-two months the first tooth appeared. The muscles of the body were limp and flabby. The child could not support her head nor was there good support to the spinal column. The patellar reflexes were but slightly present.

Treatment.—The treatment consisted in giving fresh, raw milk warmed to body temperature. In addition to the milk, steak juice, orange juice, potato flour, and the usual antiscorbutic remedies were ordered. Fresh albumin, using the raw white of egg, and vegetable proteids, such as pea soup and lentil soup, were very well assimilated.

The medicinal treatment consisted of two drugs. Thyroidine was given in doses of $^1/_2$ grain three times a day, and gradually increased until 3 grains were given three times a day. The other drug was Fowler's solution given in 1 drop doses, increased to 3 drops three times a day. It is now about six months since the treatment was commenced. The child has grown in length from 55 centimeters to 69 centimeters and the weight has increased from 11 pounds 13 ounces to 17 pounds.

CASE III.—Rosie N. was first seen by me on June 28, 1902. She was then seventeen months old.

Family History.—Father is healthy. No family history of tuberculosis, syphilis, or any other taint. The mother is in good health and has never had any serious illness nor miscarriage. This was her first pregnancy. The mother's condition was good, there was no traumatism nor any psychic disturbance. The infant was born without the aid of instruments. It was a perfectly normal delivery. The mother menstruated while nursing the infant.

Personal History. The infant was nursed about sixteen months. She did not seem to thrive since she was three months old. Severe constipation had always existed, and was present when I first saw her. She could neither stand, walk, nor talk. Backwardness in development was very apparent. Spasmus nutans was present. The fontanel was widely open. She showed no signs of intelligence. The hair was coarse and straight. The extremities were short. The growth stunted. She presented a squatty appearance. The skin was rough, thickened, and large eczematous patches covered the arms and legs. The child was sent to me by Dr. L. Weiss, who had her under his care for the relief of the eczema. The lips were thick. The tongue was thick and protruding. She had two lower incisors; no other evidence of dentition. The facial expression was senile and corresponded with that of a typical cretin. She was restless by day and suffered with insomnia by night. The urine was examined and contained no albumin nor sugar. Slight traces of indican were seen, microscopically nothing pathological. The blood examination showed four million six hundred and twenty thousand (4,620,000) red blood-corpuscles, and seven thousand two hundred (7200) white cells.

The percentage of hæmoglobin taken with Gower's instrument was about 40 per cent. As digestion was very poor I decided to syphon off the gastric contents two hours after a meal and to examine the same chemically.

Feeding.—The feeding was barley water. About 5 cubic centimeters were syphoned off, which showed traces of peptones, starch, and sugar; HCl was absent by Gunzberg's test. I am indebted to Mr. Charles LaWall for his assistance in the chemical analyses of the gastric contents, made a number of times.

Equal parts of milk and barley water were fed every few hours. Thyroid treatment was commenced; $^{1}/_{2}$ grain of the desiccated powdered thyroids was ordered three times a day. The dose was gradually increased and the child now receives 3 grains three times a day. There was no cardiac disturbance from this dose.

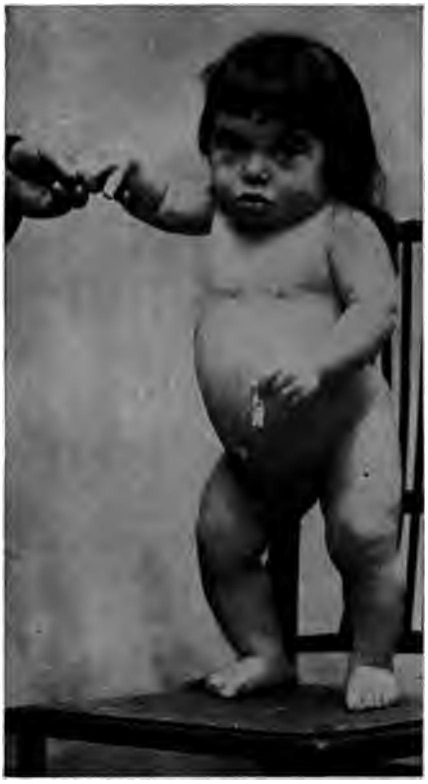

Fig. 240.—Cretinism. Age 7¼ years. Height 26¼ inches. Front view.

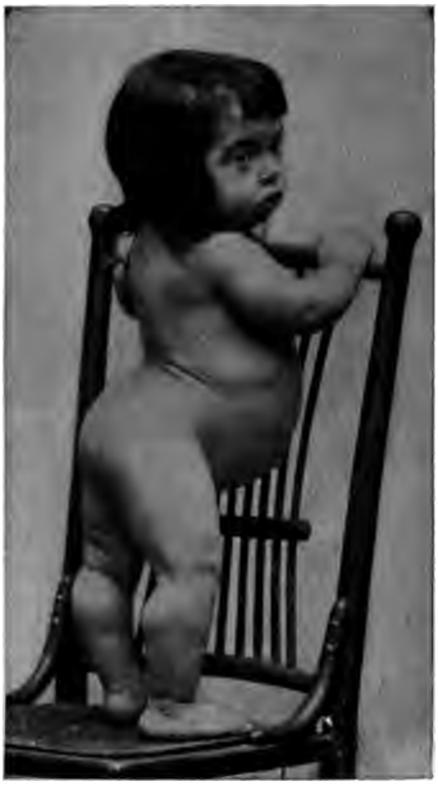

Fig. 241.—Cretinism. Age 7¼ years. Height 26¼ inches. Back view.

Lemon juice, orange juice, raw albumin, and vegetable soups were ordered. The child's condition improved. The specific effect of the thyroid was very apparent.

Case IV.—Gussie S.,[1] 7 years and 3 months old when she came under my observation. She was born January, 1897. She is the oldest of four children. The other children are to all appearances healthy, as are also the parents.

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[1] I regard this case as the most complete type of cretinism that I have ever seen. The notes were kindly furnished by Dr. A. E. Isaacs, in whose practice the case occurred.

Family History.—The mother claims to have had a severe fright during her sixth month of pregnancy, and attributed the child's mental deficiency to this psychical disturbance. There is no history of any condition similar to this child's on either side of the family. Parents are natives of Russia. They are 13 years in this country, and do not know of any such disease in their native country. The parents are not related.

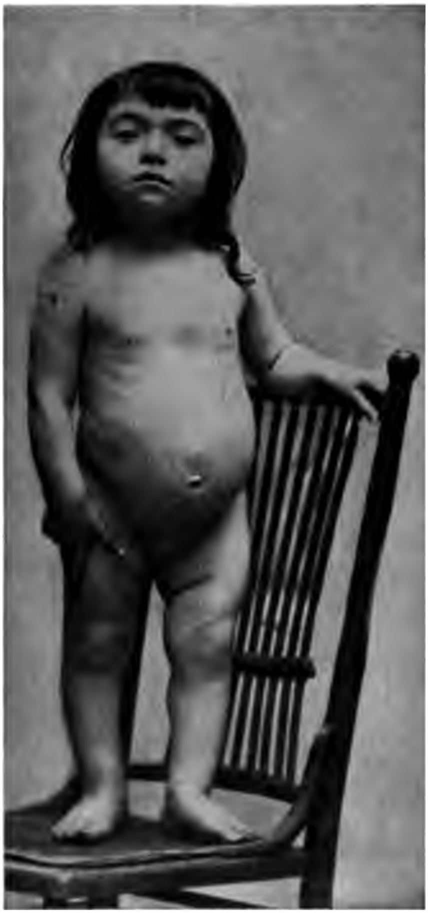

Fig. 242.—Cretinism. Same case. Age 8 years. Height 33¾ inches, gain 6¼ inches.

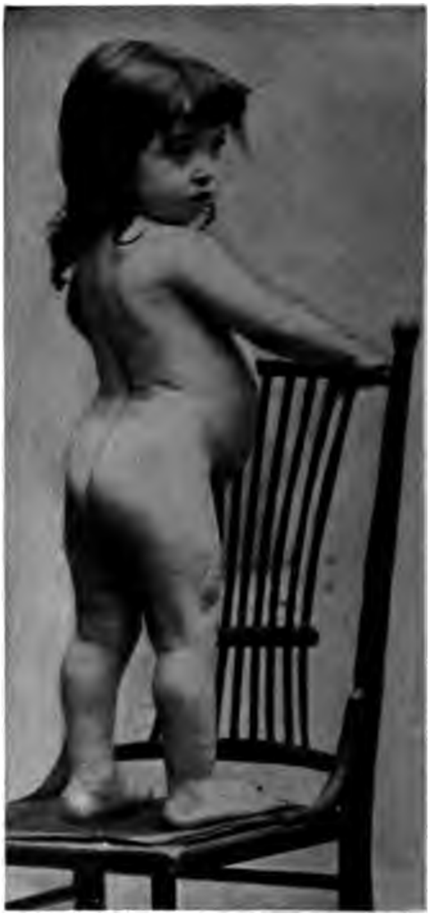

Fig. 243.—Cretinism. Same case. Age 8 years. Height, 33¾ inches, gain 6¼ inches. Back view.

Feeding. The child was breast-fed for about two years. She did not receive any other food during this period. When the child was thirteen months old the mother's menstruation returned. The mother continued to nurse the child until the end of the second year, although she continued to menstruate every month.

Nothing unusual was noticed about this child until the end of her first year. She cried very little and slept a great deal. At about 1 year of age parents noticed that she differed from other children of the same age. No teeth appeared. She made no attempt to walk or stand. Never laughed or smiled, was always apathetic and took no interest in her surroundings. There was no appreciable growth in height from 1 to 7 years. The same dresses always fitted her. In her fifth year she was for a period of six months very cross and restless, but this disappeared as it came, without any known cause.

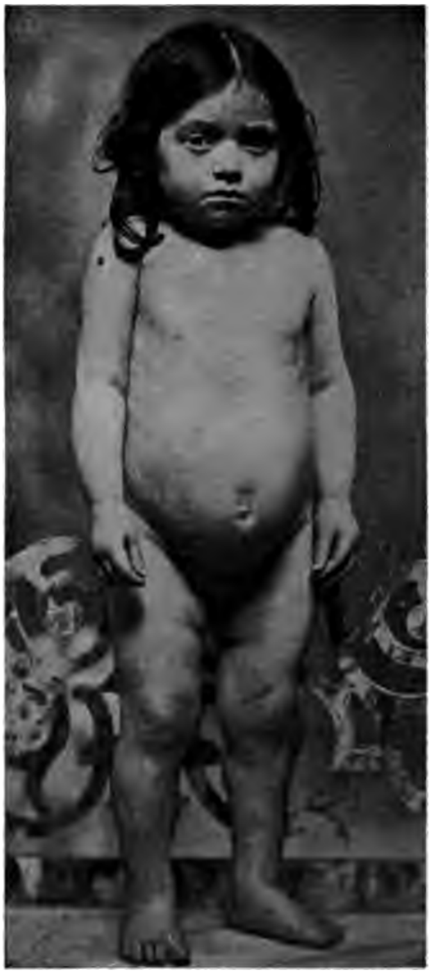

Fig. 244.—Cretinism. Same case. Age 9 years. Height 37¾ inches, gain 4½ inches. Front view.

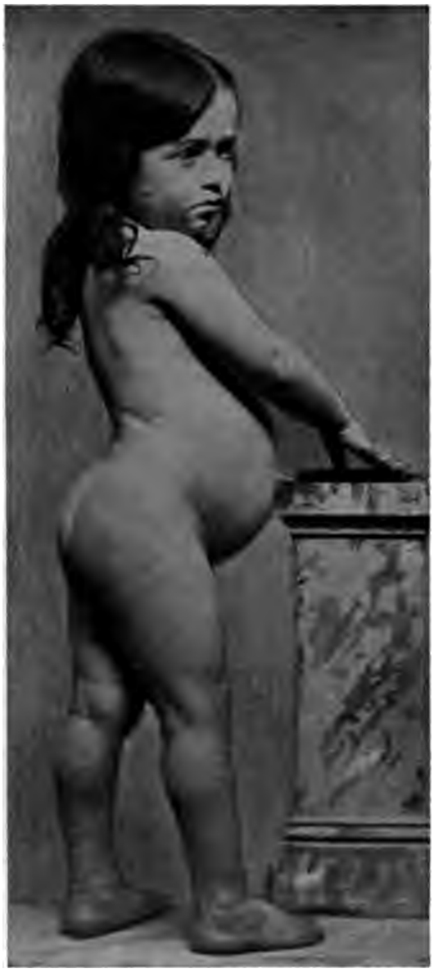

Fig. 245.—Cretinism. Same case. Age 9 years. Height 37¾ inches, gain 4½ inches. Back view.

She cut her *incisor teeth at 3 years of age* and the rest at 4 years. She has never had convulsions or any other sickness except measles when 4 years of age. She began to stand on her feet with assistance when 3 years old. She did not speak a word until 5 years old, from which time till I took charge of her she could say no more than "papa" and "mamma."

When she came under my observation, she was 26½ inches high. She weighed

$25^{6}/_{8}$ pounds and was quite stout in proportion to her height. Her head was large in proportion to her body. The lips were thick. The nose flat and depressed between the eyes. The neck was very short. No sign of enlarged thyroid, large blue eyes, teeth in fair condition, complexion dark, hair dry and of a rusty black color.

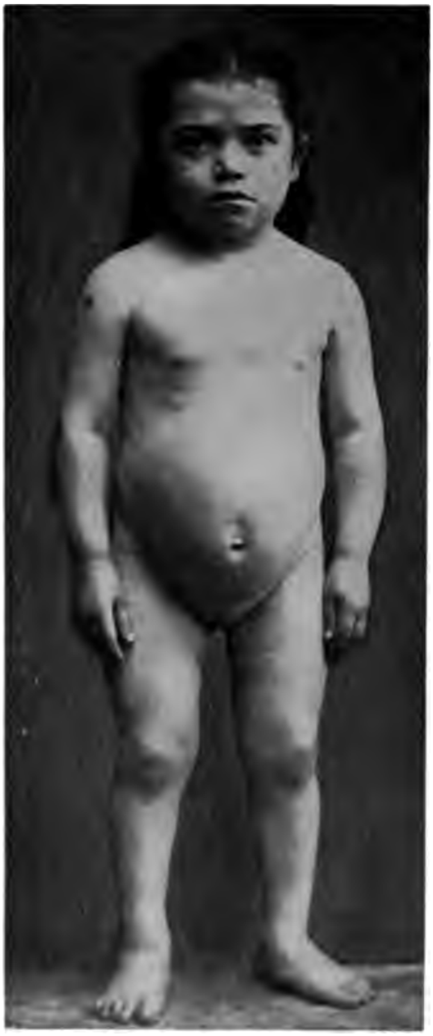

Fig. 246.—Cretinism. Same case. Age 11 years. Height $39^{1}/_{4}$ inches, gain 2 inches. Front view.

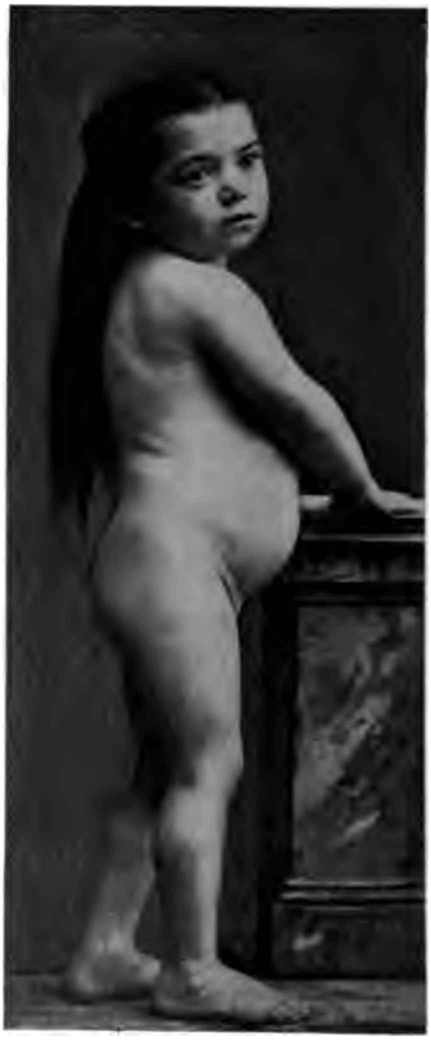

Fig. 247.—Cretinism. Same case. Age 11 years. Height $39^{1}/_{4}$ inches, gain 2 inches. Back view.

Hearing, sight, and smell apparently good. Voice not out of the ordinary. The extremities were short and thick, lower ones were bow-legged. The ends of the bones were large. The belly was large and its prominence exaggerated by a decided anterior curvature of the spine. Intelligence was almost *nil*, temperament very irritable, does not cry, but becomes very angry. She never asks for food, eats little and only what is given to her. The bowels were constipated, moving only once in two days. She never asks to pass stool or water. Had external hæmorrhoids, which bled occasionally. When awake was constantly sitting. Cannot walk alone and only a few steps when assisted. She slept well. Pulse was 96 and regular.

Has had no treatment for three years. Previous to this time parents had been all over with her and tried everything suggested, without avail.

On January 25, 1897, I put her on 3 grains, once a day, of desiccated thyroids (Parke, Davis & Co.). On February 18th dose was increased to 4 grains daily, but after a week the dose had to be reduced to 2 grains, as the pulse rose to 120 and the child became irritable. Otherwise, some improvement was already noted in her general condition; she could stand better and moved her bowels daily. After another week (March 6th) the dose was increased again to 3 grains daily and was continued so till I saw her on March 21st, when I found her pulse 144, strong and bounding. She had become considerably thinner, having lost 1 $^1/_2$ pounds in weight in spite of the fact that she had gained 2 inches in height. This gave her a much more natural appearance. She also had a more intelligent facial expression, talked more and decidedly better, walked a short distance without assistance, and ate better.

On account of the accelerated pulse and loss of flesh, I decreased the thyroids again to 2 grains daily. From this time on there was a gradual improvement in all the symptoms. By the middle of April she was running about the streets, playing with other children, and asked for her food. In May she began to tell when she wanted to move her bowels, gradually gained in intelligence, spoke more and articulated better. The dose of the thyroids was gradually increased until she was taking 5 grains daily (July), which she continued for more than a year and a half without any symptoms of intoxication.

I had the honor of presenting her before the Society[1] in 1898 after one year's treatment, when she had gained 6 $^3/_4$ inches in height. The privilege was accorded me again in 1899 when she had gained an additional 4 $^1/_2$ inches. The average growth of a normal child of her age is less than 2 inches a year. *She had gained over eleven (11) inches in two years.*

As interesting as this case is so far, the most significant and interesting part of it comes now. I lost track of the patient in January, 1899, and she took no medicine from that time until I saw her again in December, almost a year later. My notebook records the fact that there was no increase in height and that her general appearance was not good. Although I ordered the thyroid extract it was not given again until I saw the patient one-half year later, on June 1st, 1900, and again there was no increase in height or improvement in general condition. The patient's next visit was in February, 1901, when she reported that 5 grains of the thyroid had been given daily from June 1st to December 24th. Measurement showed a gain of 2 inches in height (39 $^1/_2$). Her general appearance was much better and she had been going to school for a few weeks.

If any proof be necessary as to the efficacy of the thyroid principle in cretinism, or as to the thyroid gland and its secretion being essential to the proper physiological workings of the human body, the history of this case supplies it. Take the one symptom of stature. From 1 to 7 years of age, without the administration of thyroids, there was no increase. From 7 to 8 years, with thyroids, there was a growth of 6 $^3/_4$ inches. From 8 to 9 years, also with thyroids, there was a growth of 4 $^1/_4$ inches. From 9 to 10 years, without any thyroids, there was no growth. From

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[1] Eastern Medical Society, New York City.

10½ to 11 years, with thyroids again, 2 inches were gained. All other manifestations of this cretinic condition underwent corresponding fluctuations with the administration of the extract, but changes in stature being the most evident, serve best to illustrate the progress of the case.

To contrast her previous with her present condition as well as to show her appearance during the period of her improvement no better means could be utilized than the accompanying photos. The first pair was taken in February, 1897, the second in 1898, the third in 1899, and the fourth in February, 1901.

She is now sufficiently intelligent to go to school. She plays as a child should and her general health is very good. She has yet the physical marks of her previous condition in the peculiar features, the short neck, and the spinal curvature with the abdominal prominence, though they have all improved, especially the spine and the abdomen. Her height is about 12 inches short of what it should be at her age, 11 years, but if the rapid rate of growth continues she will gain a good part of it.

September, 1901.—Has taken little medicine. Height about the same.

April 27, 1902.—Has taken medicine one and one-half months since last visit. Height, 41¼ inches; goes to school.

September 4, 1902.—Has taken 5 grains daily since April 27th. Looking and feeling well. Losing flesh, feels cold at night, hands tremble when taking things to mouth since six weeks. Pulse, 188. Height, 41½ inches. Discontinued thyroids three weeks.

I saw case on December 20, 1902. No thyroids since last week. Patient is gaining flesh, shivering (trembling) stopped. Pulse, 72. Goes to school, has mastered her figures only (is almost 13 years old). Ordered 2½ grains thyroid daily.

When last seen, April 20, 1904, the mother stated the girl had been going to school for the last two years. Very little mental progress has been made during this time. She reads an elementary primer and can remember figures. Has taken thyroid but four months out of the last sixteen months. Her height is 43¼ inches. She has gained in the last sixteen months about two inches. Her pulse-rate is 72.

Prognosis and Course.—The sooner treatment is instituted the better the result. When this condition is neglected, children become worse and worse until finally they are beyond medical aid.

It must be borne in mind that thyroid must be given for years if lasting results are to be obtained. Children will go backward at once if we discontinue our treatment, even though the same has been continued for some years. An interesting study is the continuous growth including mental development plainly seen in the illustrations of cases in this chapter.

Treatment.—The most important part of the treatment consists in administering from 1 to 5 grains of the dessiccated extract of thyroid. This replaces the active principle of the normal thyroid gland. I have used with very good success thyroidin, from ½ to 2 grains three times a day, with equally good result.

Great care should be taken to watch the pulse-rate while giving thyroid. The pulse will sometimes increase from twenty to forty beats after the administration of 1 or 2 grains of thyroid. The moment we find an exaggerated pulse-rate, it will be necessary to reduce the dose of thyroid at least one-half. A flabby, fat child will at once lose weight, and an important feature of successful treatment is an increase in height.

Thyroid Implantation.—Implantation of sheep's or lamb's thyroid (heterogeneous), or from the human being (homothyroid), has been advocated by some. In one case of mine, operated by Dr. Howard Lilienthal, the implantation of lamb's thyroid was tried. Several pieces were implanted in the peritoneal cavity. Some improvement was noted.

We must not, however, blindfold ourselves to the belief that when we supply the missing internal secretion, namely, thyroid, that we have fulfilled all indications.

The diet must be regulated and the child given a large portion of proteids—milk, meat or meat extracts, fresh beef blood or roast beef juice, orange juice, fresh eggs, and all cereals must be given as body builders. Fresh air and a general attention to the hygienic condition of the child are very important. Massage, gymnastics, and exercise should not be overlooked.

If the appetite is poor 1 to 2-minim doses of the tincture of nux vomica will do good. Butter and codliver-oil are valuable adjuncts.

EXOPHTHALMIC GOITER (HYPERTHYREA, BASEDOW'S DISEASE, GRAVES'S DISEASE).

This disease has occasionally been seen in children. It is supposed to be due to a hypersecretion of the thyroid gland. Sachs believes that heredity is a more important factor than excitement or fright. Epileptic and alcoholic parents certainly predispose to this condition in children.

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—There are three symptoms of importance which should be noted:—

1. The enlargement of the thyroid.
2. Palpitation of the heart (tachycardia).
3. Protrusion of the eyeballs (exophthalmus).

The blood tension is increased, hence hæmorrhages from the nose, stomach, or intestines are quite common. Disturbances of vision due to the exophthalmus are never described. The thyroid enlargement is usually bilateral. Muscular tremors are also noted. The diagnosis is easily made by recognizing the symptoms above described. There is a physiological hyperæmia of the thyroid which is entirely different from goiter.

Prognosis.—Cases seen by me have all assumed a chronic tendency. I have never known death to occur directly from this condition. When death occurred it was due to some complication.

Treatment.—Spartein sulphate, strophanthus, digitalis or belladonna combined with iodide of sodium may be tried. The galvanic current is strongly advised by some writers. Recently x-ray treatment has been used in conjunction with the above-mentioned drugs. The danger of x-ray dermatitis should be remembered by those having little experience with light treatment.

The use of thyroid has been suggested, but it has failed to do good in my hands.

ACUTE THYROIDITIS.

Inflammatory conditions such as abscess have been described as a complication of the infectious diseases. The migration of streptococci or other pyogenic bacteria may give rise to suppurative inflammation. The treatment is surgical.

ABNORMALITY OF THE THYROID.

Syphilitic gummata and tuberculosis have been found in rare instances. Malignant disease involving the thyroid has been reported among infantile disorders.

DISEASES OF THE ADRENAL GLANDS.

Pathologists have frequently described hæmorrhages into the adrenal glands in the new-born infant. Diseases *per se*, excepting cancer, have not been described. There is still considerable to be learned concerning the physiology of these glands.

ADDISON'S DISEASE.

This rare condition is occasionally described. Literature records about twenty cases in all.

Symptoms.—The symptoms of the disease consist of a deep-yellowish or bronzed pigmentation of the skin. It is found on the exposed parts of the body, such as the hands and head. The mucous membranes of the mouth and vagina are also pigmented. White areas of skin are scattered over the body. Vomiting, diarrhœa, and nervous symptoms are noted. Anæmia is usually very marked.

Diagnosis.—In the diagnosis of this condition it is necessary to exclude pigmentation of the skin due to metallic poisons, such as argyria, from the internal administration of nitrate of silver. Arsenic and lead have been reported as causative factors of bronzed skin.

Prognosis.—While most authors report the outcome as fatal, some few recoveries have been noted. In a case seen by me recovery took place after several years of treatment.

Treatment.—We have no specific treatment for this condition. Some authors advise the administration of the raw or cooked adrenal glands of the sheep. The dry extract in tablet form has been isolated and 1-grain doses of this extract may be given three times a day. When the gland itself is used, one-half to one gland may be given in twenty-four hours.

The value of hygienic and dietetic measures I regard as more important than medication.

PART IX.

DISEASES OF THE NERVOUS SYSTEM.

CHAPTER I.

FONTANEL.

THE posterior fontanel is usually closed at the end of the second month. The anterior fontanel normally closes between the sixteenth and twentieth months. If the fontanel is open at the end of the second year, then rickets or other abnormality may be considered. A fullness of the anterior fontanel and bulging of the same at the end of the second year is pathological. (See chapter on "Hydrocephalus.") Premature closure of the fontanel frequently occurs in microcephalus and also in congenital idiocy. This premature closing interferes with the proper growth and development of the brain.

Shape of the Head.—Peculiar shapes of the head are met with unde perfectly normal conditions. An interesting study is the series of outline sketches of the head which show the modifications in form produced by labor and also the normal sketches of the head.

Circumference.—The average circumference of the head at birth in 446 full-term infants taken in about equal numbers from the Sloane Maternity Hospital and New York Infant Asylum, quoted by Holt, was as follows:—

Average circumference of the head,	231 males..	13.90 inches	(35.5 centimeters)
Average circumference of the head,	251 females	13.52 inches	(34.5 centimeters)
Total........................	446 infants.	13.71 inches	(35.0 centimeters)

Auscultation of the Anterior Fontanel.—A bruit is occasionally heard over the anterior fontanel. (Plates 34, 35.) It is a blowing sound similar to that heard in the vessels of the neck during anæmia or in chlorotic girls. I have described this condition in the chapter on "Rachitis."

PERCUSSION OF THE SKULL.

MacEwen, in his treatise upon the pyogenic infective diseases of the brain and spinal cord, says: "When the lateral ventricles are distended with serous fluid, as would be occasioned by cerebral tumors pressing on the fourth ventricle, or by occlusion of the veins of Galen or otherwise, the percussion note is markedly altered, the resonance being greatly increased.

OUTLINE SKETCHES OF THE HEAD, SHOWING THE VARIOUS DIAMETERS.

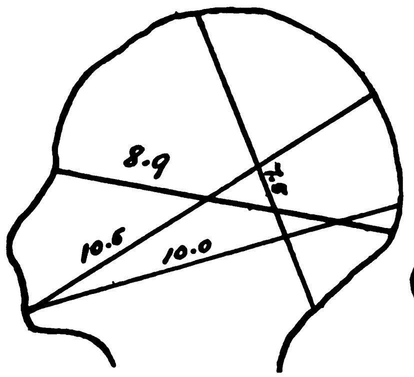

Fig. 248.—Sagittal Section of Normal Head of Seven and One-half Months' Fœtus, Half Natural Size. (After Ballantyne.)

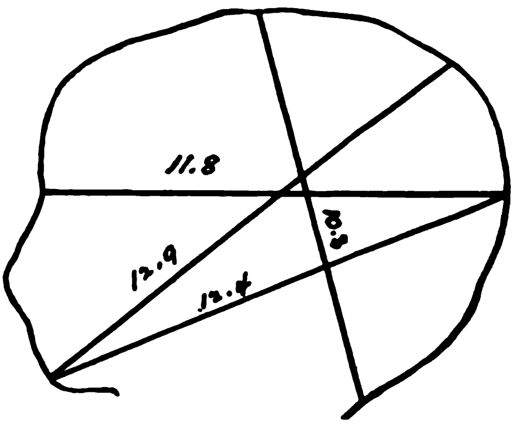

Fig. 249.—Normal Head as Seen from Above, Half Natural Size. (After Budin.)

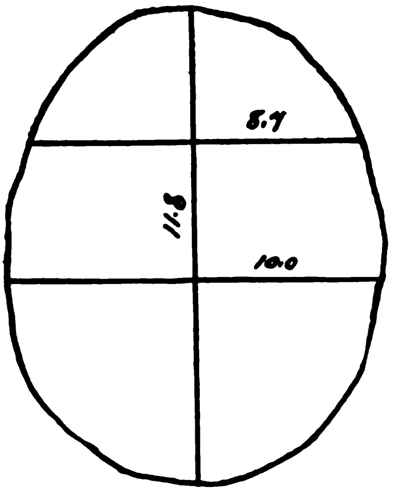

Fig. 250. Sagittal Section of Normal Head, Half Natural Size. (After Budin.)

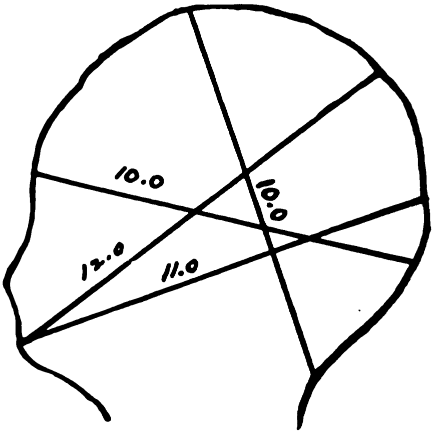

Fig. 251.—Sagittal Section of Head Immediately After Normal, Easy Labor, Half Natural Size. (After Ballantyne.)

Besides the increased resonance, there is an important feature which may be demonstrated: The percussion elicited at a given spot on the cranium, such as the pterion, varies according to the position of the head. While the person sits with the head upright, the most resonant note is brought out by percussion toward the basal level of the frontal bones and the squamous

OUTLINE SKETCHES OF HEAD OF INFANT, SHOWING THE MODIFICATIONS IN FORM PRODUCED BY LABOR, ETC.

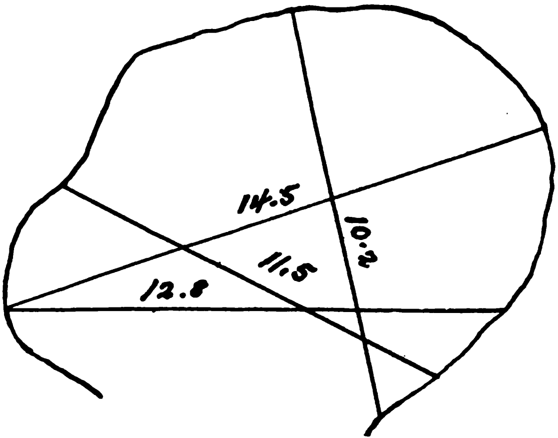

Fig. 252.—Sagittal Section of Head Immediately After Labor (O. D. P. Position). (After Ballantyne.)

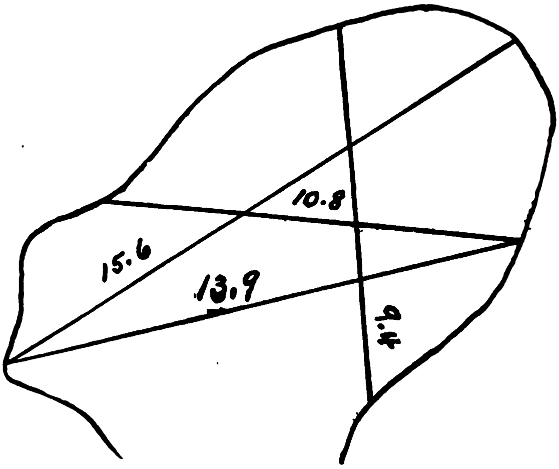

Fig. 253.—Sagittal Section of Head Immediately After Labor, Half Natural Size (O. D. P. Position). (After Budin.)

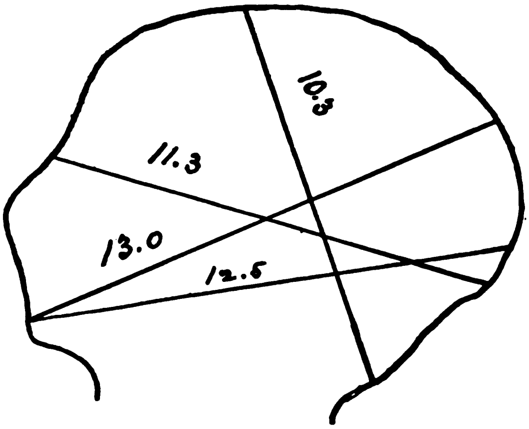

Fig. 254.—Sagittal Section of Head of Infant Six Days Old, Half Natural Size. (After Ballantyne.)

portion of the parietal. If the patient hangs his head to one side, so that one parietal is placed fairly below the other, the greater resonance is found on percussion of the lower parietal. Reverse the position and the same note is elicited on the opposite side of the head, which is now the lower, the greater resonance being found at that part of the skull nearest the lateral ventricles, and which for the time is at the lowest level.

"These observations tend to indicate that the quality of this note is not dependent on the mere density of the diameter of the cranium, but to a large extent upon the consistence or arrangement of the intercranial contents relatively to the osseous walls. . . . The exact mechanical quality of the note is difficult to describe, but, when heard, it conveys the idea of hollowness. One such case, in which the above phenomena were clearly marked, was observed to a conclusion. The percussion note was not so clear at first as it ultimately became, the resonance increasing as the disease advanced.

"In tumors of the cerebellum it is an aid to diagnosis, and when present with abscess it points to an involvement of the cerebral fossa."

THE BRAIN.[1]

In the new-born the dura mater is closely adherent to the skull, so that extravasations between the dura mater and the skull are unknown.

Fluid in the Subarachnoid Space.– In infancy and childhood more fluid is found in this space than in adult life. McClellan believes that "hydrocephalus due to an excessive amount of fluids in the ventricles of the brain may be caused by the closure of a small opening in the pia mater which is found at the inferior boundary of the fourth ventricle known as the foramen Magendie.'

Blood-vessels of the pia mater are so delicate that blood pressure, traumatism, etc., may cause hæmorrhage into the subarachnoid space, resulting in monoplegia, hæmiplegia, or diplegia.

Growth and Development of the Brain.– From birth until the seventh year is reached the brain grows very rapidly; after the seventh year the growth is slow.

Weight of the Brain.– The weight of the brain of the new-born infant is one-third that of the adult. In male and female children it is approximately the same at birth, although later on the male brain grows more rapidly than the female. When a child is between 7 and 8 years of age, the brain reaches the adult size and weight. There is from this time on a slight increase in the weight up to the twenty-fifth year.

Vierordt states that the increase of the brain after the seventh year is

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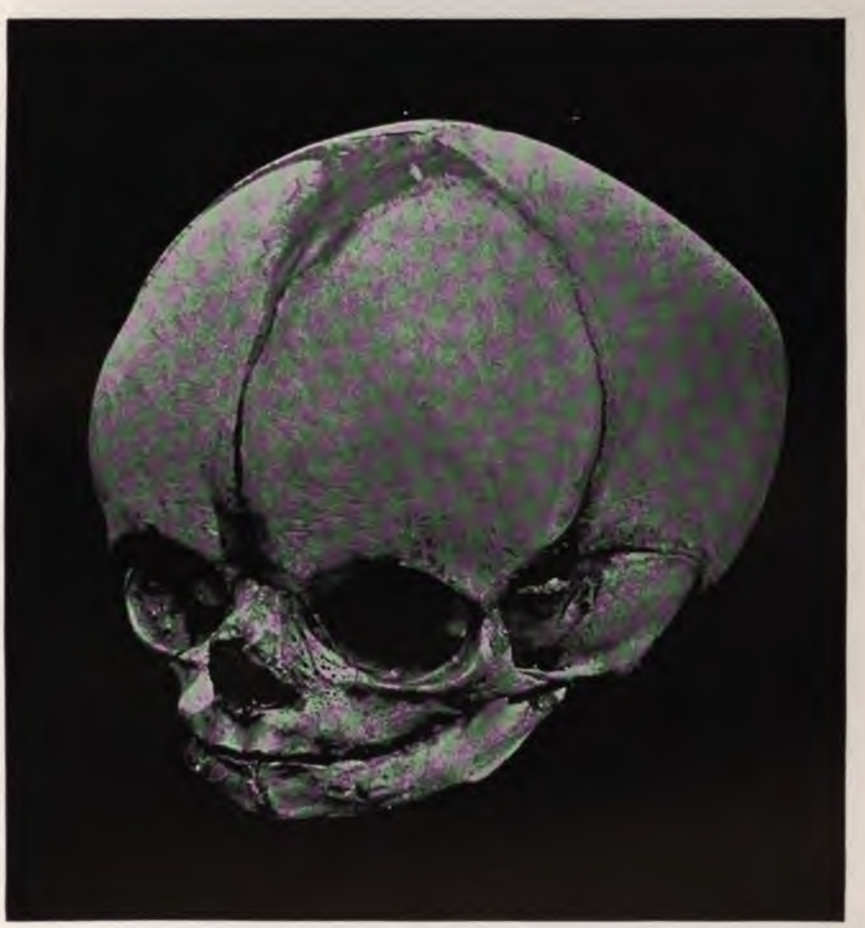
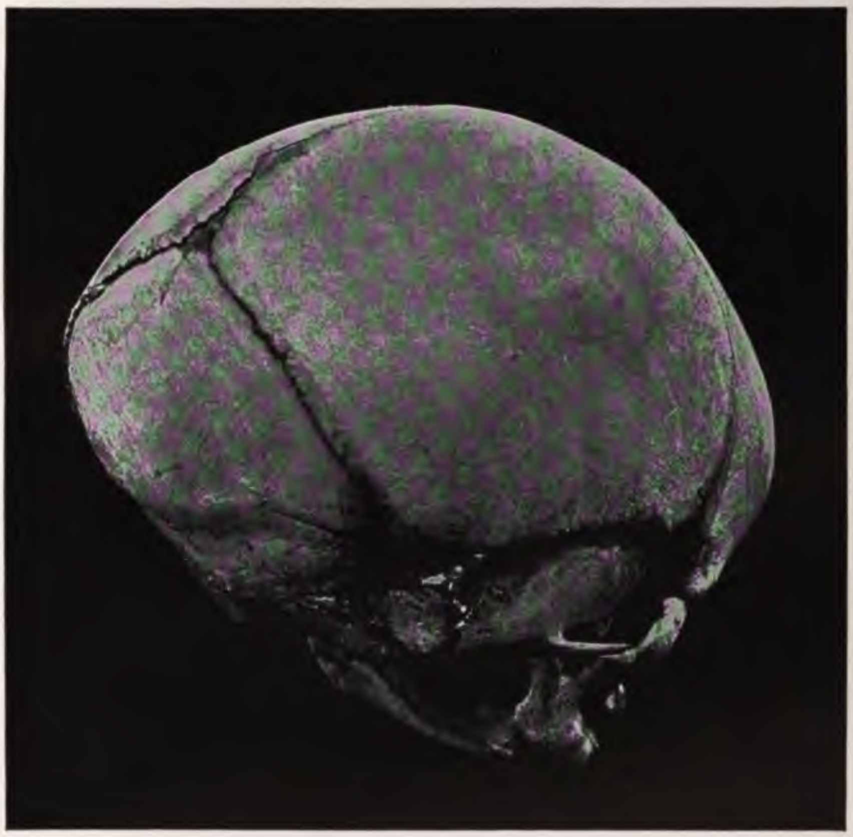
[1] The development of the senses is described in Part I, chapter on the "New born Infant."

PLATE XXXIV



Front View of the Fœtal Skull, showing the anterior fontanelle and the coronal and frontal sutures. (Grandin & Jarman.)

PLATE XXXVI



Posterior View of the Fœtal Skull, showing the posterior fontanelle and the lambdoidal and sagittal sutures. (Grandin & Jarman.)

due to an increase in the thickness of the cortex and in the size of the cortical constituents.

Difference Between Infantile and Adult Brain.—The fissure of Sylvius in its relation to the spherio-parietal and squamous sutures occupies a higher position in childhood than in later life. Symington and McClellan, in studying frozen sections of the brain of children under 7 years of age, found the Sylvian fissure above the squamous suture and covered by the parietal bone.

Fissure of Rolando.—The position is the same in the infant as in the adult.

The Cerebellum.—This is much smaller in the child than in the adult in comparison with the cerebrum.

The convolutions of the brain are more shallow in the infant than in the adult. The depressions or sulci between the convolutions are not so deep in the infant as in later life. *The special centers* of the brain are not fully developed in the infant (Taylor and Wells).

REFLEXES.

Excess of Reflex Action.—In acute mania, in cerebritis, and in acute meningitis we have excessive reflex action. In chronic hæmiplegia an increase of the reflexes associated with ankle clonus is found on the affected side. In hydrophobia, transverse myelitis, insular sclerosis, and in tetanus we have an exaggeration of superficial and deep reflexes. Attention is directed to the chapters on "Tubercular Meningitis" and "Epidemic Cerebrospinal Meningitis" for clinical illustrations of the reflexes.

Diminution of Reflex Action.—The reflexes are lessened and sometimes absent in *melancholia.* Extreme pressure in the cranial cavity or in the spinal canal will reduce the reflex act. Whenever a degeneration of muscles or nerves takes place, such as in diphtheria or other specific diseases, the reflexes will be lessened. The reflex is reduced or wanting in acute anterior poliomyelitis.

Babinski Reflex.—In the new-born baby this reflex has frequently been noted under normal conditions. Instead of normal flexion of the toes, which is accomplished by irritation of the soles of the feet, we have in disease *a hyperextension of the great toe.* This symptom is regarded as pathognomonic by some authors. I have frequently found this symptom present in tuberculous meningitis, and regarded it as a valuable diagnostic aid. (See clinical case, article on "Tubercular Meningitis.")

Reaction of Degeneration.—"In health a faradic current of sufficient strength applied to the *nerve* produces a continuous contraction of the muscle; the galvanic, a momentary contraction when the current is made and broken only. When the nerve is diseased a stronger faradic or galvanic current is needed to produce contraction, until finally, when degeneration has taken place, no current which can be used produces any contraction. In health either current applied to the *muscle* produces contraction; the response both to the galvanic current and to the faradic is quick, being in both instances due to stimulation of the nerve-endings. With lesion of the nerve and consequent degeneration of the nerve-endings, the faradic current produces no contraction, but since the galvanic current is capable also of stimulating the muscle fibers themselves, a contraction follows application, though more slowly than when the nerve-endings are healthy. After the degeneration has progressed to a certain stage, which is reached the earlier the more severe the case, this response of the muscle fibers to the galvanic current becomes more ready than in health. To this quantitative change is added a qualitative change. In health the weakest galvanic current which causes contraction of the muscle does so when the current is made with the negative pole on the muscle (kathode closure contraction, K. C. C.). When the nervous mechanism has degenerated a contraction may occur with as weak or with a weaker current when the positive pole is on the muscle (anode closure contraction, A. C. C.), and contractions may occur also with the same current when it is broken (anode opening contraction, A. O. C., and kathode opening contraction, K. O. C.[1]). To this altered qualitative and quantitative reaction of nerve and muscle to the electric currents the term "reaction of degeneration" is applied. It is not always as definitely marked as is above described. When the damage to the nerve is slight, the irritability of the nerve to both currents may be retained, and the only evidence of the existence of a reaction of degeneration is increased muscular irritability to the galvanic current, with some change also in the order of contraction to the poles (qualitative change). On the other hand, in very chronic changes the loss of irritability proceeds *pari passu* in nerve and muscle, and the reaction of degeneration is not to be observed.

"With the regeneration of the nerve, recovery of function takes place, the rate of recovery depending mainly on the severity of the lesion. Voluntary power is first regained, then the galvanic reactions become normal, and lastly, the faradic.

"Anæsthesia, which is the eventful result of degeneration of a sensory nerve, may be preceded by a condition of hyperæsthesia. The anæsthesia is often incomplete, especially in the hands and face; in a mixed nerve a lesion, capable of producing paralysis of motion, may be accompanied by little loss of sensation. Trophic changes seem seldom to occur in children as an accompaniment of lesions of sensory nerves."

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[1] The normal order is: K.C.C., A.C.C., A.O.C., K.O.C.

CHAPTER II.

CONVULSIONS (ECLAMPSIA).

CONVULSIONS occur mostly in infancy. After the seventh year of life they are very rare. The brain grows more during the first year than in all later life. This rapidity of growth is in itself, according to some writers, an important predisposing cause of functional derangement.

Etiology.—*The Exciting Causes.*—The predisposing causes may be grouped under the name of "central." They are:—

1. Diseases having a high temperature.
2. Diseases accompanied by vascular stasis.
3. Diseases characterized by anæmia and exhaustion.
4. Toxic causes.
5. Organic central lesions.
6. Functional disturbances of the brain, such as epilepsy.

Of all the manifold predisposing causes of convulsions in young children, the most important one is the natural instability of the nervous centers, characteristic of early life, and associated with the non-development of voluntary centers of the cortex; hence it is that age is a most important factor in the etiology of convulsions; and under 2 years is recognized as by far the most susceptible period. Statistics show that over 60 per cent. of deaths from convulsions, up to 20 years, occur in infants under 1 year of age. Convulsions are not only more common in infancy, but much more fatal than later in life, and for reasons that are very apparent. It has been stated by some good observers that males seem to be more susceptible than females; statistics seem to justify this conclusion, but it has been suggested by others that inasmuch as more males than females are born each year, the larger number of deaths in males may thus be reconciled, for surely it would be contrary to reasonable expectation, as females are more delicately organized, while the exciting causes are probably about equal.

The Peripheral Causes.—The peripheral causes are rachitis; gastric disturbances, such as acute catarrhal gastritis; intestinal worms; foreign bodies in the ear and nose, causing reflex convulsions; scalds and burns, and mental disturbances, such as fright, will induce convulsions. Lewis says: "Convulsions are in all probability due to an *exaltation* of the *lower* nerve-centers; or more frequently, to a suspension of the inhibitory power of the *higher* cerebral centers"—or both of these conditions may exist at the same time—and further, "It remains to be said that we are still very much in the dark as to the immediate processes producing convulsions."

"Infants have their nervous system in process of rapid development—only the component but undifferentiated parts of which are in great activity, ready to receive and re-energize limitless new impressions." At birth, the lower centers only are developed, and control is limited until the higher centers become competent to exert *inhibition;* hence in the earlier months of life convulsions are common, and less so after two years.

Improper feeding may be looked upon as the most frequent cause of convulsions. A child that is improperly fed and suffers with a subacute or chronic form of dyspepsia, suffers with a deficient structure. Such structural weakness resulting in rachitis, is a cause for that most common form of spasm known as laryngeal spasm and tetany. Toxæmic conditions resulting from bacterial infection are a most frequent cause of convulsion.

Pathology.—The development of the nervous system is not complete at birth. Very little light is shed upon convulsions by post-mortem findings. Usually after death from convulsions there is an effusion or hæmorrhage found or there is a venous stasis in the brain. When death occurs from laryngospasm it results from suffocation. The condition of the brain in the beginning of an attack of convulsion is one of anæmia. This is shortly followed by a nervous hyperæmia. The brain and meninges are usually found intensely congested and engorged. Sometimes punctate hæmorrhages can be found. The lungs are also deeply congested and the right heart is generally distended with dark clots (Holt).

Symptoms.—There is usually a loss of consciousness. The onset is sudden. A child may appear perfectly well up to the time of its convulsion and then suddenly the arms and legs become stiff, the eyes fixed and staring or rolled up under the lids. Respiration is usually arrested, the head is retracted; finally the whole body becomes rigid.

The above named symptoms belong to *the tonic stage.* It is usually followed by clonic convulsions more or less severe and prolonged, affecting the upper and lower limbs, the face and eyes.

Sometimes the tonic and clonic convulsions are few and the whole spasm may last less than a minute. Some children show no sign of illness after the attack is over, and appear perfectly normal. The attack may recur at short intervals. The child may then become comatose and die before proper treatment can be instituted. It is important to examine the urine. The possibility of a nephritis should not be overlooked.

Diagnosis.—It is usually very simple to differentiate from epilepsy, which is most frequent after the third year.

Convulsions usually are the first symptoms of the invasion of an acute disease. Scarlet fever, pneumonia, malaria, gastritis, and meningitis may be ushered in with convulsions. Measles is sometimes preceded by convulsions. Pertussis in which there is cerebral congestion may cause convulsions. Bronchitis, membranous laryngitis, and laryngismus stridulus are sometimes preceded by convulsions. Do not suspect teething or worms as a cause of convulsions until all other causes have been eliminated.

Treatment.—The treatment of convulsions consists of controlling the spasm. Inhalations of chloroform or sulphuric ether should be cautiously used, regardless of the age of the infant, until convulsions cease.

Chloral hydrate and bromide of sodium, with some starch water, should be injected into the rectum; 5 grains each of chloral and bromide with a tablespoonful of starch water should be used and repeated every hour until the spasms are controlled. Leeching by the application of one or two leeches behind the ears is valuable to relieve cerebral congestion. We can also drain blood from the frontal sinus by the application of one or two leeches at the alæ nasi. A mustard foot-bath should likewise be used until hyperæmia of the skin is produced. While the feet are suspended in mustard water an ice-bag or a cold cloth should be applied to the head.

A child, 4 years old, was suddenly seized with convulsions, clonic and tonic spasms involving the face, arms, and legs. From the history I learned that the child had overloaded its stomach, was very feverish, and thirsty. A mustard foot-bath was ordered and a rectal injection of:—

℞ Sodium bromide	10 grains
Chloral hydrate	5 grains

was injected into the rectum with two tablespoonfuls of thin starch water.

One or two inhalations of chloroform were given to relieve the convulsions.

The diagnosis of acute catarrhal gastritis was made and the convulsions attributed to a general toxæmia. When the convulsions ceased the stomach was washed with two quarts of warm water to which two tablespoonfuls of salt had been added. Food was discontinued and an interval dose of:—

℞ Sodium bromide	5 grains
Chloral hydrate	2 grains

was given every hour until the child was in a deep sleep. Twelve hours after the convulsions first began, thin soup and broth were ordered. The child was well in two days.

To control convulsions:—

℞ Sodii bromidi	5 grains
Chloral hydrate	5 grains
Starch water	1 tablespoonful

Mix thoroughly and inject, if possible, into the colon, through a small rubber catheter. Repeat every hour until convulsions cease.

Lumbar puncture, the technique of which I describe elsewhere, is one of our most valuable therapeutic measures. By withdrawing 20 to 30 cubic centimeters of cerebrospinal fluid, I have seen marked benefit therefrom. The intracranial pressure which was relieved by this procedure, lessened the irritability of the child and promoted sleep. In a case of auto-intoxication due to gastric fever, with a temperature of 105° F. and over, in a child about eighteen months old suffering with continued convulsions, the following order of treatment was carried out: First, a colonic flushing to empty the bowel; second, a tepid pack over the thorax; third, a lumbar puncture, withdrawing about 25 cubic centimeters of colorless cerebrospinal fluid; fourth, a diet of whey, and plenty of water was followed by an amelioration of all the symptoms.

HEADACHES.

Various forms of headache are encountered in children. As a rule very little reliance can be placed on headaches complained of by young children. There are four kinds of headaches which are most frequently seen in older children:—

1. Reflex headache.
2. Headache due to general systemic cause.
3. Headache of local origin.
4. Headache due to brain lesions.

Reflex Headache.—In chlorotic girls or in anæmic children headache is a common symptom. During menstrual disorders girls will usually complain of headaches.

Hundreds of cases of headache due to eye strain have been seen by me in school children. These children complain of headache during and after school hours. The headache disappears during the night and the children never complain of headache in the morning. Most of these cases have been referred by me to an oculist, who as a rule finds astigmatism. The treatment consists in relieving the eye strain by wearing eyeglasses.

Headache Due to General Systemic Causes.—Headache due to auto-intoxication resulting from impacted fæces is frequently encountered. Rheumatic children and children of gouty parents frequently complain of headaches. Such headaches are frequently found in lithæmia. The general constitutional treatment consists of a diet of vegetables, and fruit. No meat should be given. Five to 15 grains of citrate of potash will usually benefit this condition. A laxative should always be given if headache is due to constipation. Exercise and outdoor play will aid this condition.

Headache Due to Local Origin.—Children frequently complain of headache which is due to intra-nasal neoplasms. At other times such local causes as supra-orbital neuralgia, due to neuralgia of the fifth cranial nerve, will cause an intense headache. In the latter instance gentle massage or a mild current of faradic electricity will relieve. In severe cases the internal administration of $^1/_{500}$ grain of Duquesnel's aconitia, three times a day, will relieve. In persistent headache it is advisable to have the ears carefully examined by a competent aurist. The frequency of middle-ear disease should be borne in mind.

Headache Due to Brain Lesions.—In older children headache of a persistent character, associated with vomiting, should always be looked upon as suspicious of cerebral trouble. A case of this kind is reported by me in the chapter on "Cerebro-spinal Meningitis." In older children suffering with persistent headache it is advisable to examine the fundus of the eye to see if a choked disc is present. In one of my cases a tumor of the cerebellum was diagnosed in this manner.

MIGRAINE (SICK HEADACHE: HEMICRANIA).

This is a headache confined to one side of the head, associated with dizziness and generally vomiting.

Causes.—Overworked school children of a nervous type usually have these attacks. Children suffering with dyspeptic attacks are more frequently the victims of migraine. An indoor life in a crowded apartment will cause this condition. Eye strain is frequently the cause.

Treatment.—Have the eyes examined and correct any abnormality, if present. The diet should be regulated and a laxative dose 10 to 20 grains of phosphate of soda should be given. The value of bromide of soda in Seltzer water, with or without caffeine, should be remembered.

SPASMUS NUTANS.

This condition is frequently associated with rickets. It is characterized by an involuntary and uncontrollable head shake.

Etiology.—It may be associated with or follow traumatism. Fright and other psychical disturbances may cause this condition. Heredity plays an important part in its development. It is usually found associated with rickets. In a case of mine presented to the Section on Pediatrics of the New York Academy of Medicine,[1] spasmus nutans was associated with sporadic cretinism.

Symptoms.—In some cases we see a continuous nodding, in other cases the motion is rotary. In rare cases both motions, nodding and rotary, may co-exist. Nystagmus, which is a movement of the eyes, rhythmical and oscillatory, either vertical or horizontal, may also be present.

Prognosis.—This depends on the cause of the same. As a rule the prognosis is good.

Treatment.—If rickets is the cause give the child anti-rachitic treatment. If it is associated with cretinism, as in the case reported by me, then give thyroid treatment. A change of air and general restorative treatment are also beneficial in these cases. Electricity is not indicated and should not be used. Massage may be tried.

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[1] See Proceedings of New York Academy of Medicine for 1904.

SPEECH DEFECTS.

Stuttering.—This is a condition due to a series of contractions and spasms of the muscles concerned in speech. According to Scripture, the essential pathological fact is a special state of mind.

Pseudo-stuttering.—This symptom is found in hysteria, cerebral spasticity, athetotic conditions, aphasia, and some forms of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis.

Lisping.—There are various types of lisping. Organic lisping is caused by a defect in the teeth, tongue, palate or ears. We may have negligent lisping due to a faulty perception and execution of sounds. This condition may be found in normal children as well as in those of deficient mentality. The necessity for proper medical supervision in the treatment of this class of cases is forcibly expressed by Scripture,[1] who maintains that the speech organs must be examined by a physician familiar with the anatomy of the nose, throat, and larynx. In addition thereto, neurological training is necessary for a proper understanding of stuttering. Such cases should be sent to a proper clinic, where speech defectives can be classified according to their individual defects.

CHOREA (ST. VITUS' DANCE).

This is a neurosis characterized by irregular, involuntary movements of the muscles. It usually affects the muscles of the extremities, face, and tongue. As a rule, these movements are not present when the child sleeps.

Etiology.—As a rule, this disease is most prevalent between the ages of 7 and 14 years. Chorea generally occurs in bright, precocious children. It is seen more than twice as frequent in girls as in boys, and the disproportion becomes even greater after puberty. It is extremely rare in dark-skinned races. Chorea rarely becomes chronic, although it recurs in about one-third of the cases. It is more likely to recur in girls. Fright and shock are frequently the causes of this disease.

Steven Mackenzie[2] reports 439 cases. The largest number of attacks occurred in the thirteenth year.

34 per cent. occurred between . .	5-10 years
43 per cent. occurred between . .	10-15 years
16 per cent. occurred between .	15-20 years

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[1] The Care of Speech Defectives, Medical Record, Feb. 22, 1913.

[2] British Medical Journal, February, 1887.

Sachs reported a case seen in a child under 1 year of age, and several cases seen in children between 2 and 3 years of age. The reported congenital cases are usually mistaken instances of organic cerebral disease.

Sinkler found that of 328 cases 232 were females and 96 males. Gowers studied the statistics of 1000 cases and found 365 in boys and 635 in girls.

Morris J. Lewis, of Philadelphia, studied 717 cases and found that the largest number occurred in March, the next largest number in May, and that the curve corresponds with the rheumatism curve.

My own experience is that we have an equal number of cases occurring in the spring and fall, *depending on the amount of study and the sedentary life induced by too much school.*

In a large children's service among the poor tenement population, out of 100 cases of chorea examined by me, 80 cases occurred in females; 20 cases in males.

All of my cases were school children who were apparently well when their chorea commenced.

Overstudy in School.—Sturges, in London, has given considerable attention to the question of overstudy, and he believes that it is an important etiological factor in the causation of this condition. Overstudy (apparent) may mean only inability to study due to lack of mental concentration.

Chorea frequently follows the infectious diseases. It is seen after scarlet and typhoid fever. I have seen chorea of a very severe type follow a fright and also after bad dreams, in school girls. Reflex causes, such as phimosis, pin worms, and delayed menstruation, are cited by some authors.

Reflex Causes Due to the Eye.—I have usually sent children suffering with chorea to the eye specialist to see if improvement could not be obtained by using eye-glasses. I believe that headaches due to astigmatism can be relieved, so also can astigmatism be modified when suitable glasses are prescribed. I do not believe that the chorea *per se* was cured in a single case. I do not refer to those cases of habit spasm so frequently seen in nervous children, but I refer to distinct chorea.

Vaginal discharges will frequently excoriate the vulva. This produces itching, and the scratching therefrom frequently induces masturbation. This is a frequent forerunner of chorea.

Reflex conditions, such as adenoids and polypoids, have been reported from time to time.

The reflex causes are overestimated. Adenoids are more likely to induce tics rather than chorea.

Neurotic make-up plays a distinct predisposing rôle (neuroses or psychoses in family).

TABLE NO. 75.—*The Association of Chorea with Rheumatism.*

Steiner reports...........	252 cases	4 suffered with rheumatism
Sachs reports.............	70 cases	8 suffered with rheumatism
Sinkler reports...........	279 cases	37 suffered with rheumatism
Crandall and Holt report..	146 cases	63 suffered with rheumatism
Fischer reports...........	100 cases	25 suffered with rheumatism

Twenty-five Per Cent. of my Cases had Undoubted Rheumatism.—By rheumatism I include cases that complained of pains in or around the joints. At times they were described as "growing pains" by the parent.

Frequency of Endocarditis.—Valvular lesions have been seen by me in chorea without any antecedent joint lesions. The ease with which rheumatism is overlooked in children makes the clinical history as given by parents doubtful. It is, therefore, possible that there are many more cases of rheumatism associated with chorea than are reported.

Association with Tonsillitis.—Of the 100 cases of chorea previously reported by me, more than 80 cases had enlarged tonsils. It seems quite probable that *the tonsil is the point of entrance* of the pathogenic bacteria which cause chorea, and most probably rheumatism and endocarditis.

Pathology.—There are no distinct pathological lesions which can be attributed to chorea. Sachs says that the pathology of chorea is still a great mystery. Not that autopsies are wanting, but there have been so many different post-mortem findings described that each writer may be said to have his own views concerning the pathology of chorea.

Symptoms.—Chorea usually begins with prodromal symptoms. The children as a rule are very irritable, depressed, and cannot hold their arms or legs quiet. They complain of pain in various parts of the body. The main symptoms which attract the attention of parents or nurses are motor disturbances. These consist of involuntary twitchings affecting various muscles or groups of muscles. The muscles of the hands, the legs, the facial muscles, and the tongue show this choreic twitching. At times there is a decided interference with speech. A point worth noting is that the child cannot control these movements voluntarily. The greater the effort to control these movements, the more the twitching will be noticed. Sachs emphasized the fact that in doubtful cases *choreic movements of the tongue* will often prove the nature of the disease. This I have frequently been able to verify when it was a question of habit spasm or true chorea. There is a certain awkwardness which is typical in a choreic patient. This can be noticed when the child attempts to do anything. Choreic movements *do not occur* as a rule in the night when the child sleeps. The pupils are frequently dilated. Children are sometimes punished at school for restlessness which is the beginning of true chorea, and it is only later in the disease that the true character of the same is detected. In some cases but one-half of the body (hemi-chorea) is affected. In other cases choreic movements are stronger in the upper than in the lower extremities. Children seem to suffer muscular weakness and there is loss of muscular power. A peculiarity of chorea is that in spite of the constant muscular twitching there is little exhaustion. The reflexes show no abnormality.

Condition of the Heart.—Very frequently a systolic murmur has been heard during the course of chorea. This systolic murmur persists for months after the last symptoms of chorea disappear. Pains in the large joints are frequently described. I have invariably noted a slight rise in the temperature (101° F.) when the joint pains or endocarditis existed. When chorea appeared without evidences of cardiac or arthritic complications the temperature *invariably remains normal.*

Fannie S., 11 years old, was a very anæmic girl. She had been sick for two months with tonsillitis and influenza. She was compelled to stay away from school, and in order to catch up with her class, studied very hard, especially at night, until she passed her examinations.

History Given by Mother.—The child complained of headache, her appetite was poor, the bowels constipated. She was restless by day and did not sleep well at night. She had nervous twitchings of the arms and legs. The fingers were never still. She did not appear contented at anything. Her eyes were examined by an oculist, who prescribed eyeglasses. He said the child had eye strain. The mother believed there was a slight benefit after wearing the glasses.

When the child was brought to me, there were distinct evidences of chorea, with twitchings of the face, the tongue, the hands and the legs. Four drops of Fowler's solution was prescribed, three times a day, and gradually increased until 7 drops were given three times a day. All school and study was stopped. Cold sponging and a cold shower was ordered every morning and evening. Cereals, vegetables, milk, and fruit were given. All meat was stopped. An active outdoor life and all quiet games and sports were recommended. Under this treatment the symptoms gradually subsided and the child recovered. One year later the same symptoms returned, and it was found that the cause of the relapse was overstudy. I prescribed "remove the cause," namely, take the girl away from school.

Course.—The usual course of this disease is from six to ten weeks, although it may extend to four months. I have seen cases in which there was a severe attack in the spring, which seemed to disappear entirely during the summer, and suddenly reappear with greater intensity in the fall.

Prognosis.—The outcome of a case of chorea is usually good, especially so if we are dealing with intelligent mothers and nurses. The prognosis is bad if endocarditis or other organic lesions are associated.

Treatment.—*Rest Treatment.*—It is useless to attempt to modify severe or mild chorea without enjoining absolute rest in bed. The eyes should be protected from a strong light, or the room should be darkened by drawing the shades. In some cases I have kept children in bed for one week before the twitchings ceased. In severer cases it may be necessary to keep a child in bed at least two or more weeks. *The soothing influence of this absolute rest in bed* will do more good than all the drugs combined.

Hygienic Treatment.—A child should be removed from school and thus guarded against all psychical disturbances. Cold sponging of the entire body and cold spinal douches have been found very beneficial.

The diet should be light and very nutritious. All cereals should be given (see diet list for a child from 3 to 10 years old, page 154). Meat should be avoided, although meat soups and white meat or chicken may be permitted. Later fresh air and quiet out-of-door exercise, games, and sports are necessary adjuncts in the treatment of this disease.

Medicinal Treatment.—Iron and arsenic should always be remembered in the treatment of this disease. We can begin with 4 or 5 drops of Fowler's solution, three times a day, and watch the systemic effect, with gradually increasing doses until 10 drops, three times a day, are given. Great care should be used to avoid arsenical poisoning when large doses of Fowler's solution are given. In some children a peculiar idiosyncrasy exists which renders them liable to systemic poisoning. Semple has reported multiple neuritis following the use of arsenic in the treatment of chorea. I have seen multiple neuritis in a rachitic child having chorea minor. The child received 4 drops of Fowler's solution for six weeks. When the arsenic was withdrawn, the neuritis subsided. Of the preparations of iron on the market, neoferrum in doses of 1 or 2 teaspoonfuls has served me very well. Another preparation which I have frequently used is the liquor ferri peptomangan (Gude) in doses of a teaspoonful, three times a day, after meals. Ferratin, 5 to 10-grain doses, three times a day, after meals, is also beneficial. Antipyrin and bromide of sodium may also be used in some cases. When chorea is associated with rheumatism, the salicylate of soda in 3 to 5-grain doses, or salipyrin in the same quantity, may be given three or four times a day. Some authors advise against the use of chloral hydrate; my personal experience with 2-grain doses of chloral hydrate given morning and evening has been very good. If choreic twitching does not improve after several weeks of persistent treatment, then a cold pack may be tried. A sheet wrung out in cold water at a temperature of 60° F. should be wrapped around the child for one hour every morning and evening. Not only have I seen a soothing effect on the nervous system from these packs, but they frequently promote sleep. That electricity is of value in this condition is doubted by many. I have seen one or two cases in which excellent results were obtained from the use of a weak galvanic current over the spinal nerves. On the other hand I have frequently seen no effect whatsoever from the treatment with mild or strong galvanic currents.

Sachs recommends hyoscyamin in tablet form, $^1/_{100}$ grain, when restlessness and insomnia exist. Hyoscyamin should only be administered in the afternoon and evening. Massage is sometimes of value in conjunction with electricity; it has a soothing effect on the nervous system and stimulates nutrition. It is especially valuable at night and I have seen a profound sleep follow thorough massage of the body.

HYSTERIA.

It is an important matter to recognize this condition when met with in children. It is rarely seen in children under 7 years of age, although cases are on record of distinct hysteria having been met with in infancy. In my experience children rarely simulate disease. I have seen children imitate an invalid mother and complain of imaginary pains and aches at the same time and in the same portions of the body as the mother. Very neurotic children, susceptible children, and children having bad habits, such as masturbation, are more prone to develop hysteria. Charcot maintained that hysterical persons are hysterical because they are mentally degenerate.

Pathology.—Hysteria is not a fatal disease, hence we have no specific pathological lesions. The theory concerning the mobility of the neuron, while very interesting and scientific, does not explain the hysterical paroxysms. Hysteria is not a psychosis as is generally supposed. There are no known demonstrable lesions. While in some cases the whole brain seems disturbed and involved, in other cases but one-half of the brain is involved.

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—Paralyses occur in hysteria which simulate those due to central nervous disease. As a rule, however, they disappear. The hysterical paroxysm usually follows close upon an aura. It sometimes comes on suddenly, although it may be preceded by a spell of laughing or crying. Children old enough to complain describe a "lump in the throat" similar to the "globus hystericus" which occurs in the adult.

Some symptoms closely resemble epilepsy. Headache is complained of at times. The screaming and shouting gradually cease as the attack subsides. The following description given by Taylor and Wells describes the attack so closely that I repeat it: "The patient sinks down or falls prone upon the back, with the limbs extended and rigid, but with the fingers and toes flexed; the eyes are usually rolled slowly from right to left, or crossed; the jaws are firmly closed; the breathing becomes slow and labored, and later hurried, the face flushed or bluish, the neck turgid; the cardiac action becomes more rapid and forcible, and consciousness is almost, but never entirely, lost. Sensation is much obtunded, and abolished in some portions of the body. Soon clonic movements succeed—a tremor affecting the muscles of the trunk, extremities, and face. This alternates with electric-like startings, during which the patient may fling himself furiously about, or actually out of bed. Presently this stage ends with sighs, and is followed by a short sleep." Some authors describe a series of dramatic movements. There may be opisthotonos. The child may have a bowing of the lumbar curve so that it rests upon its head and heels.

There may be a series of attacks recurring so that as many as two hundred paroxysms have been recorded by Sachs. I have seen a severe form of hysteria with over ten paroxysms during one hour. Some tender areas frequently noted in children, over the ovaries and spine in girls, and the testicles of boys, are very sensitive. Some authors claim that pressure over these areas will sometimes invite an attack of hysteria; on the other hand pressure over these same sensitive areas will sometimes stop an attack.

Vomiting when it does occur is a very serious symptom. We do not have the same forms of tremor as are seen in adults.

Borborigmus (rumbling gas in the intestines) is occasionally heard in this condition.

Epidemics of hysteria are frequently described. J. Madison Taylor describes one occurring in a church home at Philadelphia. I have frequently seen children in one locality suffer with various manifestations of hysteria, in which we could easily trace the origin to one particular child.

Prognosis and Course.—The duration of the disease depends on the surroundings of the child. Mild hysteria will sometimes disappear after a change of scene and air of several weeks. In some instances a case may last years or through the child's whole life.

It is always well to remember that hysteria is difficult to cure. If a child is sensitive and subjected to impressions from a neurotic family, then a cure will be difficult. The outcome of any case of hysteria depends on the character of the surroundings and on the mental influences with which the child is brought in contact, rather than on drug treatment.

CASE I.—A girl 9 years old was brought to me for the relief of headache. She complained of a continual headache night and day. The appetite was poor, the bowels moved sluggishly. She was restless during the day, and had insomnia at night She complained of bad dreams. She looked haggard and worn, as though she were convalescing from some severe illness. She was anæmic and had cold extremities. Heart, lungs, liver, and spleen were normal. She was a very restless child with marked hyperæsthesia. The patellar reflexes were exaggerated.

Subjective Symptoms.- The child complained of pain in every part of her body. On being asked, "Does your side hurt?" she answered, "Yes, my pains are in the side and in the back, just like my mother's." I referred the child to an oculist for an opinion as to the eyes, and his answer was: nothing abnormal, no astigmatism. The child cried on the slightest provocation, and was also almost convulsed with laughter for trivial matters. The diagnosis was hysteria. The child had a headache, or a backache, and always complained of some ache. It was quite evident that the child's hysteria was due to *suggestion by the mother, who was an invalid.*

The treatment consisted in removing the child to an aunt in a neighboring city, amid healthy surroundings. Iron was ordered to build up the system, and bromide of soda in 10 grain doses was given every night for one week, later every other night Electricity, the baths, and massage were used with great success. In three months the child had rosy cheeks, slept well, was cheerful, and did not complain of any pain It was strange, however, that when taken back to her mother, she immediately relapsed into her former habit of complaining. We determined to remove her permanently, and she remained well for over a year when I last heard of her.

CASE II.[1]—*General Hysteria and Nervous Vomiting.*—A girl 12 years old was brought to my children's clinic for the relief of vomiting. She was very nervous and complained of pains all over her body. She complained also of pains in her stomach before and after eating. Her mental condition was poor, the hands and feet were cold. She complained of epigastric pains for the last six years. From the mother I learned that the child was frightened by a dog and since that time she has been very sensitive to the slightest impression. The gastric contents were syphoned off after a test meal and a hyperchlorhydria was found. The urine contained acetone.

The treatment of this case was most successful when large doses of bromides were given.

Treatment.—Study the cause or causes, and remove them if possible. Change the surroundings of the child by removing to a cheerful but quiet home. If the case occurs in the country, bring the child to the city. In any event the main point should be to change the entire scene and surroundings. If a child is in an institution, remove it from the same if it is at all possible. The person in charge of the child should be either a very intelligent mother having a positive influence over the child, or a mild-mannered trained nurse. All orders of the physician should be strictly obeyed without having the child feel that vigorous treatment is being used. This psychosis requires educational treatment as has just been described.

Hygienic Treatment.—If the child is old enough, a walk should be ordered several times a day. The bicycle and horseback are valuable adjuncts. The sponge bath or the tub-bath aided by a cold shower or spray chiefly over the spine, head, and neck, have very tonic properties.

Hydrotherapy properly used is one of the most valuable aids in promoting a cure.

Nothwithstanding the shock of a cold spray, the same should be ordered winter or summer.

After the bath the body should be rubbed vigorously, or better yet, massage should be given. I have always found a very soothing effect on the nervous system by giving gentle but thorough massage. Another remedial agent which must be used regularly is electricity. This should be used daily by means of a mild faradic current, one electrode to be applied over the spine, the other over the phrenic nerve. If no benefit is noticed after this treatment is tried, then static electricity can be used.

MULTIPLE NEURITIS (POLYNEURITIS).

This is frequently termed a peripheral neuritis, as it is an affection of the terminal branches of the nerves. It usually affects all the nerves of the limbs on both sides of the body. Starr gives the following classification:—

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[1] This case was presented by me to the Section on Pediatrics, Academy of Medicine, February 14, 1901.

"1. Toxic cases due to the action of a poison derived from without the body. These poisons are alcohol, carbonic oxide gas, bisulphide of carbon, the coal-tar products, especially sulphonal and trional; and nitrobenzol; also, arsenic, lead, mercury, copper, phosphorus, and silver.

"2. Infectious cases due to some agent acquired or developed within the body, as an accompaniment or sequel of diphtheria, grippe, typhoid, typhus, malaria, scarlet fever, measles, whooping-cough, smallpox, erysipelas, and septicæmic conditions, including gonorrhœa and puerperal fever, epidemic forms of beriberi or kakke, and leprous neuritis.

"3. Cases due to general diseased states of the body whose origin is undetermined, such as rheumatism, gout, diabetes, anæmia, marasmus, general malnutrition consequent upon tuberculosis, syphilis and senility, carcinoma, and local malnutrition produced by arterial sclerosis.

"4. Cases due to exposure to cold and developing spontaneously without known cause."

The most common type of multiple neuritis met with in children is either the diphtheritic type or that resulting from poisons in the blood, such as the prolonged administration of Fowler's solution (arsenical poisoning).

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—Multiple neuritis may come on suddenly or the onset may be gradual. The special senses are rarely involved in this condition. The motor symptoms are as marked as the sensory. Paralysis comes on first as a muscle weakness, and gradually increases until distinct paralysis is present. The extensor muscles of the wrist, hands, and feet give the wrist-drop and the foot-drop. Very rarely the muscles of all four extremities in addition to the muscles of the trunk and neck are involved. The knee-jerk usually disappears early when neuritis follows diphtheria. The paralyzed muscles are relaxed, flabby, and atrophied. An important symptom is that faradic excitability is absent and that the muscles respond to a galvanic current only. This symptom is identical with that found in acute anterior poliomyelitis. The reaction of degeneration is present.

There is usually no incontinence of bladder and bowel. Atrophy is another prominent symptom. The condition is similar to that seen in poliomyelitis. There may be other vasomotor disturbances such as unilateral flushing of the skin, or small areas may show a high glossy flush. This last symptom was very prominent in one of my cases. An œdema of the affected parts is described by some authors. As a rule the areas affected are very sensitive, so that we have distinct hyperæsthesia. In other cases the opposite condition prevails and there are areas of local anæsthesia. The disease may be ushered in by a fever. The temperature may rise to 103° or 104° F., and remain several days. The pulse-rate is correspondingly increased and may reach 140 or 160.

Gastric disturbances associated with diarrhœa may be present. The spleen is frequently enlarged, and an examination of the blood will show a distinct leucocytosis, the latter condition when neuritis is a sequela to an infectious disease.

Course and Prognosis.—As a rule, multiple neuritis lasts from several weeks to several months, and then ends in recovery. The cases seen by me associated with chorea in which arsenical poisoning took place, invariably improved when the drug was withheld for a short time. Rarely does the paralysis remain permanent. The prognosis can best be gauged by noting the electrical reactions. If the reaction of degeneration is present after the disease has lasted several months, then a permanent lesion must be suspected. If, on the other hand, there is only a slight difference in the reaction following the use of the faradic current, then a complete recovery may be expected. Some cases, although severely atrophied, will ultimately recover. If myelitis complicates this condition, the prognosis is serious.

Treatment.—The system should be strengthened with proper nutrition. The patient should be made as comfortable as possible. If severe pains exist, then large doses of bromide should be given, with or without codeine, until all pain is relieved. In some cases the local application of warmth over the affected limb is very soothing. I frequently use a warm bath at night, which is very soothing and promotes sleep.

Gentle friction and massage are beneficial. Restoratives, such as cod-liver-oil, maltine with hypophosphites, and iron should be used. The syrup of the iodide of iron is a good restorative. Butter, cream, and cereals are excellent tonics. Strychnine and nux vomica are valuable if the appetite is poor; otherwise they have no specific value.

PAVOR NOCTURNUS (NIGHT TERRORS).

Children apparently healthy will sometimes awaken from a sound sleep and shriek or scream.

Etiology.—In this condition children usually show some disturbance of the stomach or bowels which may have been the exciting cause of the night terror. Reflex irritability is frequently caused by intestinal worms, by adenoid vegetation, or in the male child by an elongated prepuce, or by phimosis. Such children usually possess a neuropathic constitution by inheritance. Henoch states that some children may have hallucinations during the day. These attacks occur but once during the night, and after reassuring the child that there is no danger, it will again fall asleep.

Symptoms.—Some children awaken frightened and screaming, while others will grasp anything within reach in a bewildered manner. They frequently imagine that animals are in the room. The effect of too rigid discipline will sometimes show itself by bad dreams at night, and in a distinct hysterical symptom, such as fright and terror.

Course and Prognosis.—If these night terrors are associated with mild nervous attacks during the day, or if they partake of the nature of epileptic attacks, then a cautious prognosis should be given. The inclination to serious brain or nervous trouble must always be remembered; therefore, no opinion should be ventured until a case has been properly observed.

Treatment.—Children having night terrors should be removed from school to insure perfect tranquillity. There should be a distinct change of scene, a change from the city to the country, or *vice versâ,* will be beneficial. Any reflex cause, if present, should be attended to, and, if possible, removed. Fresh air, out-of-door life, and restoratives are indicated. Such children appear less frightened if they sleep in the room with an adult, and are thus reassured that there is no danger present.

Cold or gradually cooled bathing or a spray over the spine will tone the nervous system. It should be used in a warm room daily. Five grains of sodium bromide may be given before retiring.

MASTURBATION (ONANISM).

This habit is very frequently seen in children. I have seen it in girls as well as in boys.

Causes.—Any irritation of the genital tract that will cause itching may be the origin of masturbation. In boys an elongated prepuce, or friction from phimosis, may give rise to this condition. Very acid urine may cause excoriation and thus invite this bad habit. Excoriations at or near the external meatus may be the starting point. We see this condition quite frequently in girls when preputial adhesions due to smegma or dirt cause an irritation of the clitoris or when pin worms wander from the anus to the vagina; thus worms frequently set up an irritation resulting in masturbation. A diaper if too tightly pinned can set up an irritation, especially in female children.

Symptoms.—Children usually place their hands on the genitals and masturbate. They sometimes rub their thighs together until exhausted. During this friction their face will be flushed and they appear irritable.

Such children suffer with profound anæmia as the result of this habit; and from loss of sleep. Older children, especially boys, will masturbate chiefly at bedtime. They are peevish, irritable, and very sensitive.

An infant about nine months old was seen by me in consultation with Dr. L. F. Harris, of New York City. The mother complained that the child continually rubbed its thighs. The face was flushed during the rubbing; later the child would fall asleep as though from exhaustion. This condition seemed to occur chiefly when the child was placed on the bed or held on the lap. An examination of the genitals showed that they were very red and excoriated from the constant irritation.

The prognosis is usually good if the habit is detected early and the cause removed if one exists. On the other hand, some cases will persist in spite of careful treatment, and nothing but heroic measures will effect a cure, as the following case will illustrate:—

An infant, female, was brought to me for the relief of this condition. The child had masturbated continually for several months and was so emaciated that the parents were alarmed. The condition was so bad that the child masturbated whenever the thighs were put together. A pad was improvised to separate the thighs and local applications of lead water on cotton were placed over the genitals to reduce the irritation. Large doses of bromides were administered to control irritability in the nervous system. The child was kept in a stupor for several days without having the condition relieved. The symptoms persisted and we finally were compelled to remove the child to the St. Marks Hospital where Dr. H. J. Garrigues suggested performing a clitoridectomy. This case was published *in extenso* in Archives of Pediatrics, May, 1899. The child made a perfect recovery. The habit did not reappear.

Treatment.—Remove the cause if any exists. All irritants, such as worms or eczema, should be treated. If an enlarged prepuce causes this condition, remove it. If a vaginal discharge exists, treat it with astringents, and thus avoid irritation. If worms are present, injections of quassia will dislodge them (see chapter on "Worms"). In older children we must remove the child from bad company, and sometimes it will be necessary to change the entire surroundings of a sensitive but well-meaning child. An ocean voyage is beneficial. The system should be strengthened by giving iron and strychnine. Clean habits, a rigid hygiene, and a daily bath are necessary. Strict supervision by night as well as by day with the aid of a trained nurse will do more good than medicine. Children once detected with this bad habit must never be permitted to sleep with their hands under the bedclothes.

Circumcision is one of the most valuable means of curing this habit. In females, especially in little girls, stripping the clitoris and cleansing the smegma, if present, will frequently modify this habit. If the habit persists in spite of this treatment, then a radical operation—clitoridectomy (see clinical case given)—may be required.

the muscles usually relax. Muscular rigidity appears in paroxysms and may come on every few minutes.

The temperature varies between 101° and 104° F. or there may be hyperpyrexia reaching 107° F. The pulse is small, feeble, compressible, and very rapid. Symptoms of malnutrition, such as emaciation, are very evident. Stadtfeldt reports 88 fatal cases; 83 of these died between the ages of six and ten days.

The following case illustrates tetanus seen in private practice:—

A female infant fifteen days old was seen by me suffering with fever. The nurse said that she refused the breast. The infant was in good health apparently up to this time. The appetite was good, the bowels regular, no gastric disturbances existed. On examination the umbilicus was found inflamed and suppurating. The temperature was 102° F.; the pulse 160. The jaws were fixed. The infant had spasms, which grew more severe when she was handled. The body relaxed for a few minutes at a time.

The treatment consisted in cleansing the wound with strict asepsis, dusting europhen powder on the umbilicus, and protecting the same with a sterile bandage. The rectum and colon were flushed with warm saline solution. An injection of 5 cubic centimeters of antitetanus serum was given with the usual antitoxin syringe. As no effect was evident from the injection, a second injection of 5 cubic centimeters was administered twelve hours later. Symptoms of improvement followed and the child recovered.

A second case of tetanus was one caused by scratching an open wound situated near the nose, while playing with a canary bird. Symptoms of tetanus appeared two days after infection. This case was also seen in consultation by Dr. George F. Shrady. Large quantities of tetanus antitoxin were injected with no beneficial result. The case ended fatally. In this case the infection was traced to some canary birds which were in the same room as that occupied by the family.

Prognosis and Course.—The duration of fatal cases is seldom more than one or two days. Those tending to recovery usually extend from one to three weeks.

While occasionally cures are reported, five out of ten seen by me have ended fatally. I have seen cases, both in this country and abroad, injected with sufficient antitoxin, end in recovery.

Treatment.—An injection of 30 cubic centimeters tetanus serum should be given, and repeated every twelve hours until the toxic symptoms improve. In addition thereto, the bromides of potassium and sodium, chloral hydrate, belladonna, and opium are among the anti-spasmodics used. It is essential to give large doses or no effect will be produced. Calabar bean has been lauded by some authors and can be given hypodermically.

The literature records a great many cases where the antitoxin was injected directly into the brain. In the new-born baby this method should be used, as there is no obstacle to the introduction of the needle through the open fontanel.

In one case treated by me the antitoxin was injected through the anterior fontanel.

Treatment.—The deficiency of calcium salts has given us a clue to therapeutics, showing that probable imperfect metabolism of certain mineral salts is responsible for this condition.

The thyroid gland has been successfully employed in the treatment of tetany. It may be administered raw or in the form of a dried gland in doses of 1 to 5 grains per day.

Thorough cleansing of the gastro-intestinal tract is demanded. For a child 1 year old, a 3-grain compound jalap powder, combined with $^1/_4$ grain calomel, may be given on awakening, and repeated if necessary the following morning; $^1/_{250}$ grain phosphorus dissolved in one-half teaspoonful of cod-liver oil may be given three times a day after meals.

The diet should consist of skimmed milk, expressed beef juice, chicken or lamb broth thickened with barley or farina, steamed rice or farina, arrowroot boiled in milk, puree of peas, stewed fruit, bread, crackers and butter. Meat and eggs should be eliminated from the diet. Water may be given liberally.

TETANUS (LOCK JAW).

This acute infectious disease is caused by the invasion of a specific micro-organism.

Etiology.—Any open wound on the surface of the body can be the point of entrance for these pathogenic bacteria.

There are some parts of our country in which the disease exists all the year round, provided the factors which cause the same, filth and dirt, are brought into play. A child infected with tetanus can transmit the disease; hence this should be borne in mind while a case is under treatment.

Bacteriology.—Nicolaier in 1884 found a specific micro-organism in the soil from which he infected animals and produced tetanus. He also found this germ present in patients affected with tetanus.

In 1898 Kitasato demonstrated this bacillus in pure culture. It was also found in infants suffering with tetanus. From the pure culture Kitasato and Behring produced an antitoxin.

The toxin generated by tetanus is a deadly poison. Kitasato found that an animal which was infected and left alone died in one hour.

Pathology.—Distinct lesions of tetanus cannot be demonstrated pathologically. An open wound and evidences of a general septic infection can usually be found. Hæmorrhages of the brain or smaller hæmorrhages in various parts of the body may exist. If the umbilicus has been the point of entrance, the wound will not heal.

Symptoms.—In the new-born the first symptom noticed is the refusal to take the breast. Owing to the rigidity of the muscles, the jaws will be found stiffened and feel hard to the touch. The same spasmodic stiffening will be made out in the other parts of the body. After a sudden stiffening the muscles usually relax. Muscular rigidity appears in paroxysms and may come on every few minutes.

The temperature varies between 101° and 104° F. or there may be hyperpyrexia reaching 107° F. The pulse is small, feeble, compressible, and very rapid. Symptoms of malnutrition, such as emaciation, are very evident. Stadtfeldt reports 88 fatal cases; 83 of these died between the ages of six and ten days.

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a deep sleep as though exhausted after the end of the clonic stage. This sleep lasts hours at times. Children old enough to describe symptoms will state that they have no knowledge of what has happened. They awake just as children do after a deep chloroform narcosis.

Petit Mal Form.—This is a milder type of the condition above described. The attacks, instead of lasting minutes and hours, usually last but a few seconds. The child does not fall, but may sit quietly during the seizure until it passes off.

An aura is absent in this condition. The attacks not infrequently happen several times a day. They may also occur at night. In some children we have both varieties.

Differential Diagnosis.—Epilepsy is frequently confounded with hysteria. In hysteria there is partial consciousness. In epilepsy there is a loss of consciousness. The biting of the tongue and symptoms, such as the nocturnal appearance of the attacks, will aid in establishing the diagnosis. There is usually a dilatation of the pupils.

An epileptic may have an attack in inopportune places, such as the street or on a hot stove, whereas a case of hysteria usually selects a place indoors, entirely out of danger.

Prognosis and Course.—This disease does not follow a regular course. The usual interval between seizures in the very beginning may be months. Regular intervals of epileptic attacks may be every two or four weeks. In some severe cases seen by me the attacks came on every day. It is not unusual for epileptic seizures to come at night only. When such is the case, the diagnosis is very difficult.

The outcome depends on the condition of the patient. A child may be seized with an attack while on the street and be killed by an accident. Instances are on record where epileptics have fallen into the water and were asphyxiated during the spasm. Traumatic epilepsy will occasionally be cured by surgery. Generally speaking, the cases of epilepsy seen by me did not do well with surgical treatment.

Treatment.—A case of this kind should never be left alone, owing to the danger of accident during the epileptic seizure. If a cause exists, such as adenoid vegetations or phimosis, the same should be radically treated. I have previously mentioned the results of Herter's examinations of the urine; thus, we find that the products of indigestion are usually found in epilepsy.

Dietetic Treatment.—Arguing from this point of view, the stomach and bowels must not only be constantly supervised, but the lightest kind of nutrition that will yield strength should be ordered. The action of the bowels must be frequent. The slightest constipation should not be permitted.

Cereals, vegetables, and fruits, in fact, the lightest kind of dairy products, should be ordered. Meat and similar stimulating nutrition should be enjoined. Water and liquids should be freely given. Neither alcohol, tea, nor coffee should be allowed.

Hygienic Treatment.—Children so afflicted should be kept out of doors as much as possible. They should not attend school. They should have cheerful surroundings and avoid all useless excitement. They should be given a bath daily and a proper amount of sleep.

Drug Treatment.—Sodium bromide seems to be the drug *par excellence* in the treatment of this disease. Children can take as large if not larger doses of bromide than adults. I have frequently given 10 grains of bromide of soda to a child 1 year old, and repeated the same several times a day.

We must study the tolerance of every child by carefully increasing the dose until the physiological effect of the same is produced. Seguin advises giving large doses early in the morning, small doses during the day, and large doses at night. The reason for the *large dose at night* is the frequency with which the attacks appear in the night. Belladonna is advised by some authors. Chloral hydrate is frequently useful when combined with the bromides. I sometimes use arsenic alone when the bromides cause acne.

Crotalin is the dried venom taken from the fangs of the American rattlesnake. It is well spoken of by some writers in the treatment of this disease. It is injected into the back of the forearm in $^1/_{200}$-grain doses.

Restorative treatment should be combined with this anti-spasmodic treatment. The system should be strengthened by giving iron and strychnine. The use of malt extracts and codliver-oil will be found beneficial. Regarding the surgical treatment of epilepsy, Sachs says:—

"In a case due to a traumatic or organic lesion an early operation may prevent the development of cerebral sclerosis. If an early operation is not done, the occurrence of epilepsy is a warning that secondary sclerosis has been established and an operation may prevent it from increasing. Operation must include the removal of the diseased area; here, if all other parts are normal, a cure may result. Under favorable conditions a few cases of epilepsy may be cured by surgery and many more improved."

Surgical Treatment.—Geo. W. Jacoby advises as a prophylactic measure to operate early, that every head injury or suspected fracture should be trephined. Thus, an operation is indicated in suspected organic focal disease of the brain. If meningeal hæmorrhage due to traumatism is suspected, an operation will do good if performed early. Concerning the excision of a piece of the cortex to remove a scar, he does not believe any permanent benefit is derived therefrom, because a larger scar results.

B. Sachs and A. Gerster[1] give the following summary: An operation is permissible in traumatic epilepsy when the case is not over 1 or

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[1] American Journal Medical Science, October, 1896.

2 years old. When there is a depression of bone, the operation is indicated at a later period, but should not be delayed. Trephining alone is sometimes sufficient. If the disease is of short duration, a part of the cortex may be incised. The complication of infantile cerebral paralysis, if the case be recent, is no contraindication to the operation. It must not be performed in epilepsy of long duration.

ACUTE MYELITIS.

This condition consists in a diffuse inflammation resulting in destruction of spinal elements and the softening of the cord.

Etiology.—It is not a rare condition, but is most frequently seen as a complication of the infectious diseases. Chilling of the surface of the body seems to favor the development of this condition. Some authors state that it follows metallic or other chemical poisonings. It is frequently associated with spinal trouble, such as Pott's disease. Injury is frequently given as a cause, *but syphilis is the most frequent cause.*

Pathology.—*Macroscopical:* The cord is seen thickened and surrounded by hyperæmic meninges. The substance of the cord is much softer than normal and sometimes resembles pus. Frequently small, punctate hæmorrhages and even larger extravasations of blood can be seen microscopically. In severe disintegration of the cord, the microscopical findings are useless. It is in the mildest forms that pathological changes can best be studied. In the dilated blood-vessels we find leucocytes and granules of myelin. Corpora amylacea are frequently seen.

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—The symptoms depend on the portion of the cord tissue involved, and on the severity of the process. In syphilis we have a slowly developing condition weeks and months before myelitis symptoms pointing to this condition can be noticed. If children can complain they describe a sense of weight in the legs, which gradually increases, so that in a few days the limbs are entirely palsied. Convulsions and delirium have frequently been noted. When the reflexes are anatomically related to the affected segments they disappear, and below that level they are increased; after a few days, if the cord has been entirely destroyed at the inflammatory focus, the reflexes are entirely abolished (Church). Provided the posterior roots and meninges are involved, pain in the back and limbs is a prominent symptom, but rarely is of an excruciating character at the onset. At the upper level of the inflammation some pain is the rule, which gives rise to a band or girdle sensation and a zone of hyperæsthesia about the abdomen or chest. This sign, with the paralysis, definitely localizes the upper limit of the lesion, but if it be in the lower cervical region this sensation passes down the arms and is not so sharply defined. Lesions in the cervical region are also marked by implication of the cilio-spinal center, with consequent dilatation of the pupil.

Continuous priapism is then, too, a usual occurrence, and the intercostal muscles and heart may be affected. Below the lesion, and depending upon its intensity, there are variations in sensibility to all forms of stimulation, from slight blunting to the usual complete anæsthesia. Sensations of drowsiness and aching in the paralyzed and anæsthetic limbs are sometimes mentioned; and cramps and drawing up of the limbs frequently occur early, and later are the rule. Distinct muscular atrophy related to the portion of the cord affected takes place, but in the trunk it is not readily discernible. The paralyzed limbs during the first few days are abnormally warm, but soon present a subnormal temperature; sluggish circulation and emaciation ensue, with œdema of the feet and legs if the limbs are left any length of time in a pendent position. If the lesion is low down, the atrophy is a marked feature and the reaction of degeneration is present. Under the influence of pressure, bed-sores form on prominent portions of the body and limbs, and this very early. In some cases within the first week immense sphacelization may take place over the sacrum, which cannot be explained by pressure and the moisture from the urine, but implies a dystrophic condition of cord origin. Trophic symptoms (bed-sores) are especially liable to occur when the lumbar cord is the seat of the disease.

Prognosis and Course.—The course of the disease is chronic. The condition varies but little. The symptoms get worse and worse until death ends the trouble. From a few weeks to a few months may terminate the disease.

At times if it is associated with or dependent on Pott's disease, improvement may be expected. Sometimes myelitis is caused by syphilis either in its active form or due to a syphilitic neoplasm. It is rare in such conditions to effect a cure.

Treatment.—If specific conditions such as syphilis exist, then antiluetic treatment is required. Iodide of sodium can be given in very large doses, 5 to 50 grains per day. The general indications, such as attention to the stomach and bowels, must be met and stimulated if required. It is important to feed a patient in this condition with very nutritious food. Counter-irritation over the spine is advisable. For this purpose tincture of iodine or mustard will be useful. I insist on absolute rest in bed (water bed if possible) and in frequent change of position.

CHRONIC MYELITIS.

This condition is usually the continuation or the prolongation of acute softening of the cord. It is here that we find bed-sores as well as disturbances of the bladder and bowels.

Treatment.—The treatment consists in what has been previously advised in the acute condition. Life can only be prolonged by giving tone to the system with proper food.

MALFORMATION OF THE SPINAL CORD (SPINA BIFIDA).

The most frequent malformation seen is spina bifida. It affects the vertebral canal and ends in a protrusion of a small or large soft tumor filled with serum. This serum is a clear, yellowish liquid similar to cerebro-spinal fluid. We are indebted to Humphrey[1] for an accurate description of this lesion. He says: "Spina bifida is due to an early failure in development, in most cases before the cord is segmented from the epiblastic layer from which it is developed. Hence, it remains adherent to the epiblastic covering, and the structures which should be formed between the cord and the skin are developed. For this reason we have in the wall of the sac a fusion of the elements of the cord, nerves, meninges, vertebral arches, muscles, and integument. If the error in development occurs later, the cord and nerves may be attached to the sac, but not intimately fused with it; in still other cases the cord does not enter the sac at all. The malformations may occur before the central canal is closed, or, if closed, it may reopen from the accumulation of fluid. It is probable that the accumulation of fluid first occurs, and that this prevents the union of the parts of the vertebral arches.

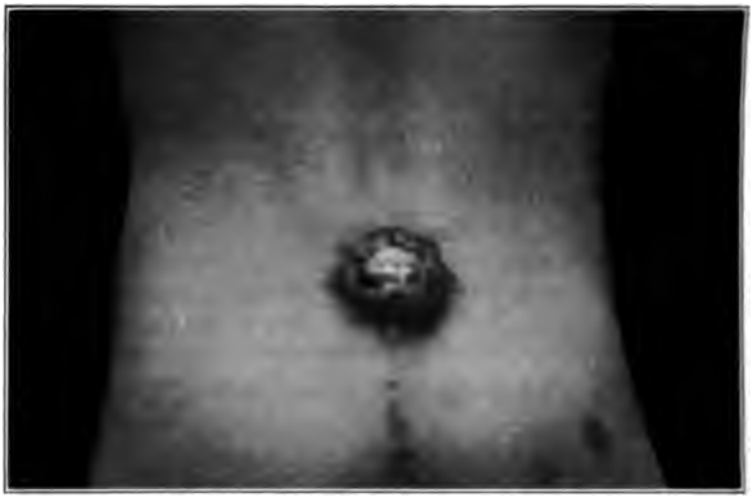

Fig. 256.—Case of Spina Bifida. Spontaneous cure. Male child, 6 years old. Now suffers with paralysis of both legs. Well nourished. No evidence of hydrocephalus. (Original.)

"Although the tumor is generally associated with a bifid spine, this is not necessarily the case. The protrusion may take place through the intervertebral notch or foramen, or there may be a fissure of the bodies of the vertebræ, and an anterior tumor projecting into the cavity of the thorax, abdomen, or pelvis, spina bifida occulta. The principal anatomical varieties are meningocele, meningo-myelocele, and syringo-myelocele."

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[1] Lancet, March 28, 1885.

The following case of spina bifida occurred in my private practice. A boy, 6 years old, was brought to me with a history of having a very large growth in the lumbar region. The sac burst spontaneously. Since that time the boy has a double paralysis, and also suffers with incontinence of urine and fæces. He was brought to me for the treatment of the paralysis. The general condition was good and he appeared well nourished. There was no evidence of hydrocephalus.

Treatment.—The treatment of spina bifida is surgical. I have seen a number of successful cases.

Hereditary Ataxy (Friedreich's Disease).[1]

This condition is caused by degeneration of the posterior columns of the spinal cord. As a rule several members of the family are affected.

Etiology.—This disease is usually seen at or about the period of puberty. Measles, scarlet fever, or any other acute infectious disease may precede the development of this condition.

Pathology.—The lesions seen are: "Sclerosis in the posterior columns (columns of Goll in their whole extent, and columns of Burdach in their upper part), in the direct cerebellar tract extending laterally into the column of Gowers, in the lateral columns (crossed pyramidal tract), in the gray matter (columns of Clarke, and posterior horns). In some cases dilatation of the central canal has been observed."

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—The motor system shows the most characteristic symptoms. The patient stands with the feet far apart. The body sways and there is an unsteadiness while trying to maintain the equilibrium. The gait resembles that of an alcoholic intoxication. A tremor of the hands and head and choreiform movements affect the same parts. Paralysis and emaciation may be present. The tendon reflexes are absent as a rule, but their presence does not speak against the diagnosis in the early stage of the disease. The eyes show nystagmus. There is no optic atrophy. There is vertigo. The speech is slow. The intellect seems impaired. There is a peculiar clubbing of the feet. The foot is short. The toes are overextended, the instep high and hollow. The Babinski phenomenon, or hyperextension of the big toe, may be the first symptom of this condition.

The prognosis is grave. The disease lasts years.

Treatment.—The disease runs its course, although electricity and restorative treatment plus massage may be tried. The disease usually ends fatally.

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[1] I am indebted to Williams's excellent monograph for some points in this article.

TABLE No. 76.

ACUTE SPINAL PALSY.	ACUTE CEREBRAL PALSY.
Onset sudden, with fever, coma, and convulsions. Convulsions rarely repeated after first few days.	Onset sudden, with fever, coma, or convulsions. Convulsions apt to be repeated.
Paralysis flaccid, associated with atrophy. Marked trophic changes. Deformity without contractures.	Paralysis spastic, no atrophy, no marked trophic changes. Associated with rigidity and contractures.
Paralysis widely distributed, possibly involving all extremities, or narrowly limited to one member or even a single group of muscles.	Paralysis generally hemiplegic, sometimes diplegic or paraplegic. Monoplegia rare.
Electric reactions altered (R. D.).	Electric reaction normal.
Deep reflexes diminished or lost.	Deep reflexes exaggerated.
Intellect never permanently involved; no epilepsy.	Intellect often involved; epilepsy frequent (Sachs).

Symptoms. Acute poliomyelitis usually appears as any other infectious disease. Children usually have fever reaching 102° or 103° F., followed by a sudden paralysis; sometimes vomiting and convulsions may also be present. The reflexes are greatly diminished or entirely absent. The emaciation occurs very early and the part affected is limp. The muscles lose their tone and are soft and flabby. The surface temperature is cold. Shortening takes place. The electric reaction of the paralyzed muscles and nerves shows "the reaction of degeneration," the anodal closure contraction being equal to or greater than the cathodal closure contraction. According to Sachs, the reaction to the faradic current is lost at once, but to galvanism it remains or is increased for some time and then is lost, except that it may appear to very strong currents. There may be tenderness along the affected nerve and pain in the muscles during the acute stage. The bladder and rectum are usually not involved. The brain is not affected, so that this condition *per se* does not give rise to mental derangement.

Pre-paralytic Symptom. This symptom, recently described by John A. Colliver,[1] is a peculiar twitching, tremulous or convulsive movement. It usually affects a part or whole of one or more limbs, the face or jaw, and may also affect the whole body. In the beginning, the symptoms [illegible] less than one second and do not recur oftener than one hour or so. Later the spells lengthen to a few seconds, and recur at shorter intervals. The condition is sometimes accompanied by a [illegible] cry similar to the [illegible] cephalic. During the convulsive movement the child is apparently conscious with eyes set for a few seconds.

Diagnosis. This disease usually follows [illegible]. At times it is a [illegible] [illegible] followed by paralysis. There is "a stationary stage, lasting [illegible] to six weeks. Then a period of improvement," lasting about six to twelve months, and, lastly, "a stage of permanent disability."

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[1] Journal of the American Medical Association, March 15, 1913.

The initial fever is sometimes followed by pain in the limbs and the condition mistaken for rheumatism. *In no other disease is the response to the faradic current absent as early as in this condition.* In diphtheritic palsy the previous history will assist in clearing up the doubtful diagnosis. Atrophy of the muscles occurs very early and is an important diagnostic guide.

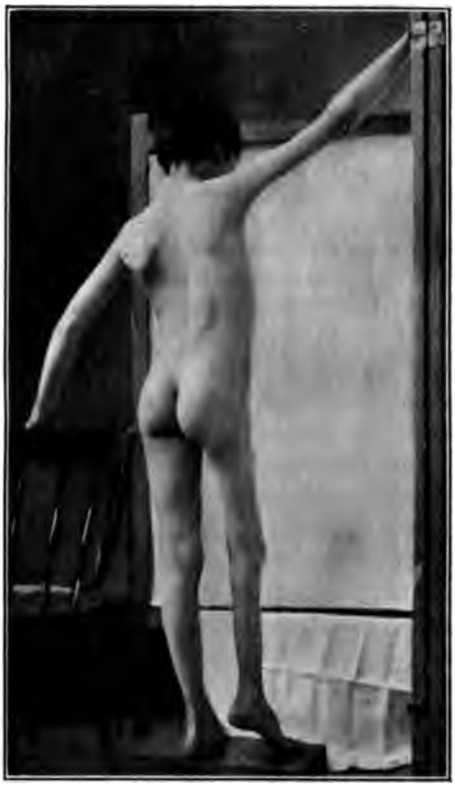

Fig. 259.—Infantile Paralysis, with Atrophy and Impaired Growth of the Right Leg, and Drop-foot; Four Years After the Onset. Note atrophy on affected side. (Case of Dr. M. Allan Starr.)

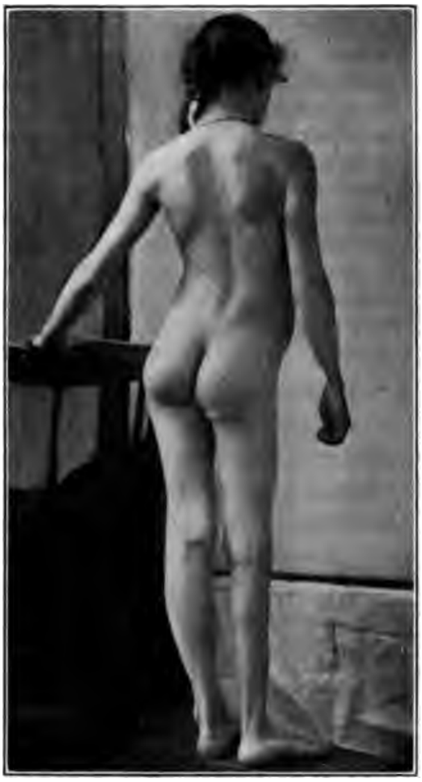

Fig. 260.—Infantile Paralysis, with Atrophy of the Right Leg. The curvature of the spine is secondary to the shortening of the leg. (Case of Dr. M. Allan Starr.)

Prognosis.—It is difficult to state what will be the outcome of a case of this kind. I have seen some severe cases entirely recover. The severity of the beginning of an attack is no guide as to its outcome. Some mild cases may leave permanent deformities; as a rule, however, some muscles remain permanently paralyzed. The reaction of the muscles with the faradic current should be the guide in estimating the outcome of any case.

The following case will illustrate this condition as seen by me at the children's department of a large outdoor service:[1]—

An eleven-month-old male infant was referred to me by Dr. E. D. Lederman. The child had measles when six months old. This was followed by bronchitis. Was breast-fed three months and since then has received equal part of cows' milk and water. Dentition has been normal. He has six teeth. Has had an occasional dyspeptic attack. The mother states that about four months ago the child had fever lasting one day; on the following morning the legs were paralyzed. This paralysis gradually improved and today is confined to the right side only. There is a distinct anæsthesia over the foot, which is gradually less toward the thigh. The patellar reflex is absent on the right side. There is no ankle clonus. The plantar reflex is very slightly present. The foot is very cold; there is marked atophy of the limb noticeable. A hæmic murmur is heard with the first heart sound, and the same is also heard in the vessels of the neck. The diagnosis of poliomyelitis was made. Massage and galvanic electricity were ordered. Strychnine, $^{1}/_{100}$ grain; also baths consisting of 250 grams ferri sulphas, crude, every third night, followed by brisk friction. An antiscorbutic diet was also prescribed.

Treatment.—Considerable progress has been made in the treatment of infantile paralysis. The former method of placing the paralyzed limb into plaster of Paris or braces is gradually being abandoned. In older children "muscle education" is commended and the child guided through active exercises, so that atrophy from non-use is prevented.

A comparison of this latter method of muscle active treatment, rather than the muscle passive treatment, which latter results from splints, braces, and plaster casts, shows a decided leaning toward the muscle active treatment. Patience and persistence will be rewarded by success after weeks and months of this treatment. The child's brain must be in sympathy with its movements; hence, the passive exercises, such as gymnastics or massage, are far inferior to a method by which the child can be instructed in the performance of various exercises in which the body and mind co-ordinate. It has been found by clinical experience, and such cases have been reported by Teschner and others, that a muscle, be it ever so atrophied, can be redeveloped by a system of carefully planned exercises.

Medicinal Treatment. Intramuscular injections of strychnine in doses of $^{1}/_{100}$ grain every other day gradually increased until $^{1}/_{50}$ grain can be given to a child 5 years old, younger children in proportion. Arsenic in the form of Fowler's solution may be given in doses of 1 to 5 drops three times a day. Electricity or galvanic current may be used in conjunction with massage, but gentle massage will accomplish just as much, and more than violent rubbing by inexperienced hands.

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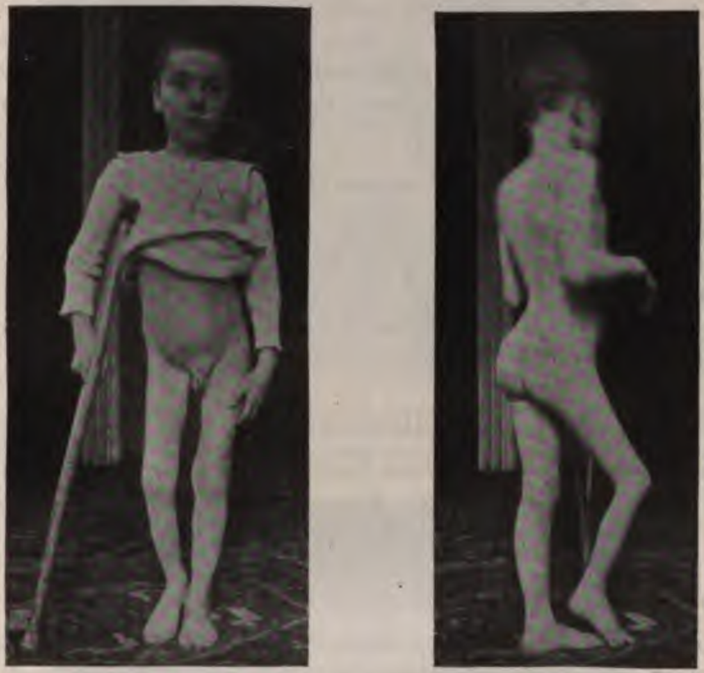
[1] Recent research has shown the *Cimex lectularius* (bedbug) as the probable carrier of this disease.

Restorative treatment should consist in giving concentrated food, such as milk, yolk of egg, broth, and gruel. Seabaths will aid in restoring normal conditions. The treatment must be persisted in for months.

Prevention of Drop-foot.—When it is evident that a group of muscles is weakened, a support is necessary. Tubby says that recovery is always hindered and even entirely prevented in a stretched muscle, whereas when it is relaxed the reverse is the case. Therefore, in order to obtain the maximum amount of recovery in an affected muscle, relax it to its fullest extent and massage it.



Front View. Side View.

Fig. 261.—Infantile Paralysis. Note drop-foot and drop-wrist.[1]

Elongated muscles are earliest restored to power and use by maintaining them slack. Muscles not paralyzed will contract. George W. Jacoby recommends, as a prophylaxis for drop-foot, placing the foot in rectangular position by means of bandages and splint to prevent contracture. Never even allow the weight of bed clothes on the foot.

In cases of drop-foot or drop-wrist, tenotomy may be required, but this should be left to the judgment of a conservative orthopædist.

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[1] I am indebted to Dr. Dexter Ashley for the above illustrations.

The bacteriological studies of Simon Flexner regarding the etiology of the disease have altered our conception of its cause. The treatment must therefore be directed toward elimination of toxin as much as possible. Urotropin (which liberates formaline) may be given in 2- to 3- grain doses several times a day. Hot packs over the affected parts have a stimulating tendency. A warm sulphur bath using the crude sulphuret of potassium 4 ounces for one body bath at a temperature of 102° F., repeated daily for a few minutes, acted beneficially in several of my cases. Lumbar puncture is useful in those cases of poliomyelitis complicated by polioencephalitis. By tapping the spinal canal 10 to 15 cubic centimeters of fluid will relieve intracranial pressure and frequently modify symptoms. Thus far intraspinal medication has proven useless. Dry cupping of the spine may be tried every other day.

HYDROCEPHALUS.

This is an accumulation of serum in the head.

External Hydrocephalus.—When the effusion is between the dura mater and the pia.

Internal Hydrocephalus.—When the lesion is in the ventricles of the brain. The latter condition is most commonly seen.

ACUTE HYDROCEPHALUS.

This condition usually follows basilar meningitis. In acute hydrocephalus the effusion is not large. Some authors state that no more than three or four ounces of serum are present.

CHRONIC INTERNAL HYDROCEPHALUS (WATER ON THE BRAIN).

This condition must not be confounded with tubercular meningitis.

Etiology. The cause of primary or secondary internal hydrocephalus is very difficult to determine. In some instances syphilis has been given as the causative factor. An interesting paper has appeared by D'Astros,[1] who describes 12 cases in which hydrocephalus was associated with syphilitic lesions, so that the condition was congenital. By some, chronic hydrocephalus is believed to be due to tuberculosis.

Pathology. "The changes in the brain result from the gradual accumulation of fluid in the ventricles. The septum lucidum is usually broken down, and all the avenues of communication between the ventricular cavities are greatly enlarged. The continuous distention results in a gradual thinning of the brain substance which forms the ventricular walls; often these are found only one-fourth of an inch in thickness, or even less than this, the cortex being a mere shell."

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[1] Revue Mensuelle des Maladies de l' Enfance, Chapter IX, pp. 481 and 543.

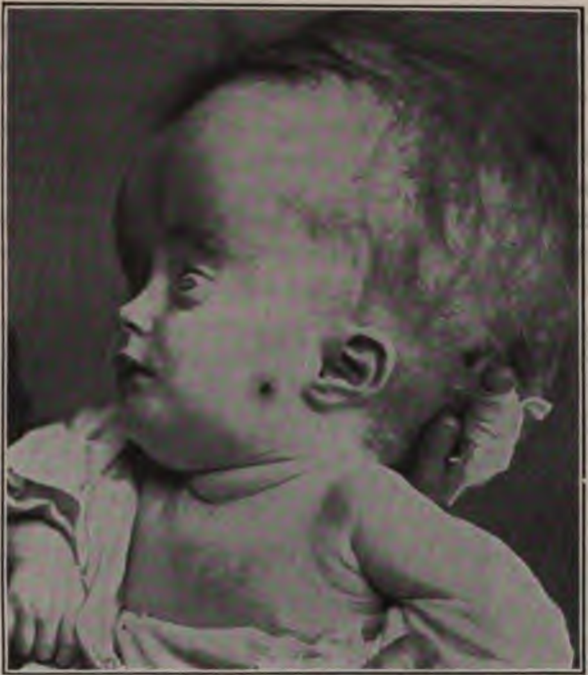

Fig. 262.—Case of Chronic Internal Hydrocephalus. Note the position of the eyes and the globular shape of the head. Aspiration of the ventricles every week gave 50 to 60 cubic centimeters of a perfectly clear fluid. (Original.)

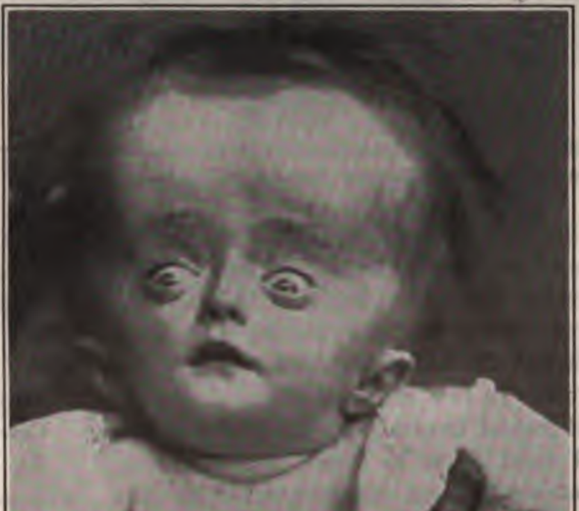

Fig. 263.—Front view of same case. Note position of eyes and ears. This is a characteristic expression of hydrocephalus. (Original.)

The brain appears anæmic, so that the gray and white substances resemble each other. The bones of the skull show the lesions very plainly. The sutures are separated in some cases. Where premature ossification has taken place, the head instead of being very large, is very small. This is called a microcephalic condition. Sometimes spina bifida is associated with this condition.

Symptoms.—The first symptoms that attract attention are, that the head is increasing in size; that it seems very heavy; that the child appears stupid; that it does not notice things, but stares continuously. The forehead is very high, the fontanel distended and bulging. On palpating, the soft fluctuating liquid can be felt. The sutures are very wide apart. The pupils are usually enlarged, sometimes contracted. Convulsions are frequently present. While the head enlarges the body emaciates.

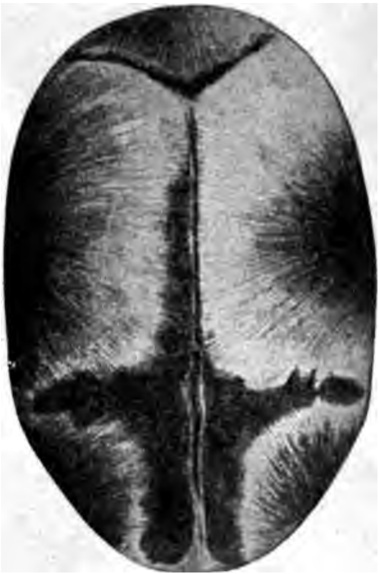

Fig. 264.—Hydrocephalic calvarium (or skull-cap), widely gaping fontanels and sutures. One-half natural size. (Langerhans.)

Prognosis and Course.—This disease usually terminates fatally about the seventh year. In rare instances the condition may extend through life with impaired mental faculties due to the brain trouble. Cases that have been reported cured should be viewed with suspicion.

Treatment.—Aspiration has been tried by many, with no apparent benefit. I have never seen a good result follow the aspiration of the liquid, because the fluid returns very rapidly, so that nothing is gained by the operation.

Blistering, counter-irritation, strapping, and lumbar puncture have been tried by me with no apparent success. Iodoform collodion has been recommended by some.

In a case seen in consultation with Dr. L. Harris, of this city, convulsions were relieved by lumbar puncture.

Mercurial inunctions and large doses of iodide have been tried. If syphilis is the cause, then some benefit may be expected from specific treatment.

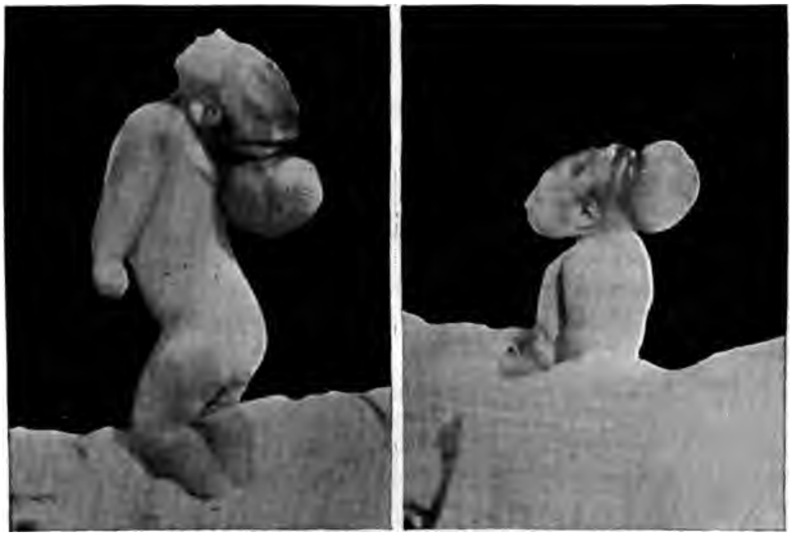

Fig. 265.—Encephalocele. Infant 1 day old, admitted to my hospital service, having a globular tumor in the occipital region of the head. The tumor measured 8 1/2 centimeters from above downward, and 8 1/4 centimeters from side to side. The autopsy was performed by Dr. John Larkin. (Original.)

MENINGOCELE.

When there is defective ossification in the bones of the skull and some part of the membranes of the brain protrudes, it is called a meningocele. Some writers believe it is caused by an intra-uterine hydrocephalus. These tumors generally contain cerebro-spinal fluid in the bag of membrane. When pressure is exerted over the swelling, the liquid will be emptied into the brain. Sometimes cerebral symptoms will result from this manifestation.

ENCEPHALOCELE (CEREBRAL HERNIA).

In this condition there is a protrusion of the brain substance in addition to the membrane. This protrusion takes place through the frontal and occipital bones. It is usually a congenital deformity. If the tumor contains a portion of a dilated ventricle and is filled with cerebro-spinal fluid, it is called a hydro-encephalocele or hydro-encephalo-meningocele.

A case of this kind was seen by me some time ago in which the tumor protruded through the occipital bone. It was a congenital deformity. Distinct pulsation could be felt. The tumor increased in size when the child cried. Convulsions resulted from forcibly pushing the tumor into the cranial cavity.

Treatment.—The injection of 1 drachm of Morton's fluid after aspiration of some of the liquid contents may be tried. Morton's fluid:—

℞ Kali iodide	30 grains
Iodine pure	10 grains
Glycerine	1 ounce

M. Inject 1 drachm after each aspiration.

If no improvement is noted after some time, surgical treatment should be tried.

CYCLOPS.

This is a very rare condition and consists of the child having but one orbit, which is situated in the middle of the forehead at the root of the nose.

PORENCEPHALY.

This consists usually of a defective development, leaving a hole in the brain. It is a congenital disease and may be located in any portion of the brain.

CHAPTER IV.

TUBERCULAR MENINGITIS (BASILAR MENINGITIS).

This is usually a secondary condition. It is not a primary disease of the meninges. In infants, tubercular meningitis usually follows bone tuberculosis, tuberculosis of the lymph nodes or joints, and not infrequently a tubercular otitis may extend and involve the meninges.

Etiology.—The association of adenoid vegetation and the probable entrance of the tubercle bacillus through the lymph channels of the neck is the most probable means of infection.[1] (See article on "Acute Tuberculosis.")

Bacteriology.—There is no question about the association of the tubercle bacillus with this infection. It can be found in the spinal fluid withdrawn by a lumbar puncture. Other pathogenic bacteria may also be found. In one case reported by me we found the diplococcus intracellularis in addition to the tubercle bacillus.

Pathology.—The chief pathological condition is a growth of miliary tubercles. Associated with these we frequently find tubercular nodules of variable size, and in almost every case they are the products of ordinary inflammation of the pia mater—lymph or pus—together with an accumulation of fluid in the lateral ventricles of the brain. Holt says: "Frequently there are tubercles in the pia mater of the upper portion of the cord. The miliary tubercles appear as small gray or white granules, situated along the vessels of the pia mater. When few in number they are usually located at the base, especially along the Sylvian fissures and in the interpeduncular space. When numerous, they are most abundant at the base, but are also seen scattered over the convexity in small groups. In about half of my autopsies they have been limited to the base, and in no case were they seen exclusively at the convexity. Tubercles are often found in the choroid coat of the eye. The amount of lymph and pus present is rarely great, and never equal to that seen in simple acute meningitis. It is often a matter of surprise at autopsies to find the lesions so few, after very marked symptoms. The inflammatory products are most abundant at the base. In addition to the patches of greenish-yellow lymph, there are adhesions between the lobes of the brain and thickening of the pia. In cases which have lasted for several weeks, the pia mater in places is often very much thickened, owing to cell infiltration and the production of new connective tissue, and it is studded with miliary tubercles, sometimes with small yellow tuberculous nodules; frequently there is arteritis, which is sometimes obliterating.

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[1] This view is maintained by W. Freudenthal, of New York.

"In the most acute cases the brain substance immediately beneath the pia is intensely congested, slightly softened, and shows under the microscope a superficial encephalitis. The lateral ventricles are usually distended with clear serum, sometimes with serum containing flocculi of lymph or pus; the amount present varies from one to four ounces in each ventricle, being always greater in the subacute cases. The walls of the ventricles may be softened. The distention of the ventricles leads to flattening of the convolutions from pressure against the skull, to bulging of the fontanel, and sometimes to separation of the sutures, if they are not completely ossified."

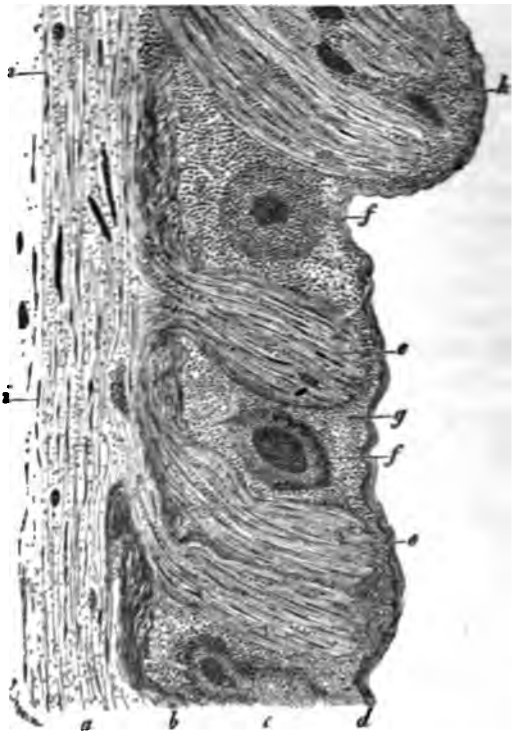
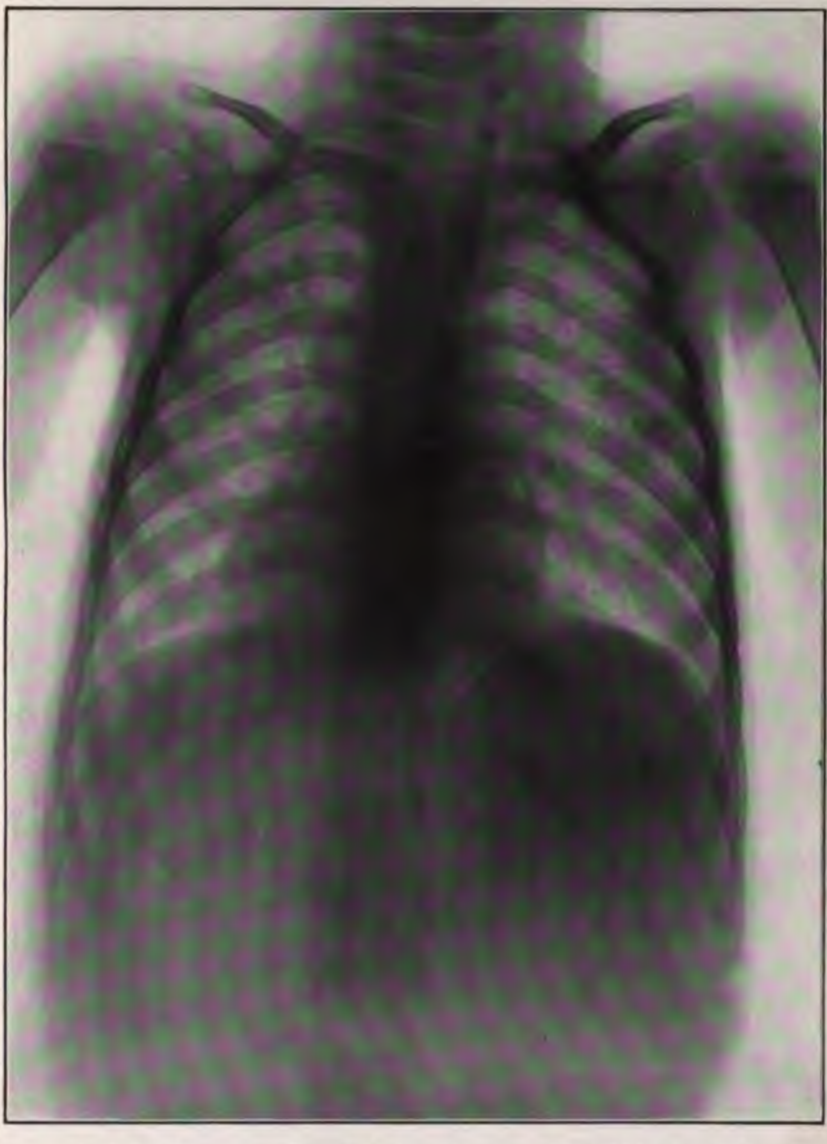


Fig. 266. Tuberculous Spinal Meningitis. Longitudinal Section of Spinal Cord and Posterior Roots. (a) Spinal cord; (b) pia mater; (c) subarachnoidal space; (d) arachnoid; (e) posterior roots, cellular infiltration and containing isolated swollen axis cylinders; (f) vessel with cellular infiltration and proliferated wall; (g) cellular exudate in subarachnoidal space; (i) swollen axis cylinder. X45. (Ziegler.)

PLATE XXXVII



Disseminated Pulmonary Tuberculosis in a Two-year-old Child having Tubercular Meningitis. (Courtesy of Dr. Wm. H. Stewart.)

1

Tuberculous nodules varying in size from a small pea to a walnut are frequently seen associated with meningitis in older children, but not so often in infants. These nodules may be connected with the meninges, or they may be situated within the brain substance, usually in the cerebellum. The larger ones are classed as brain tumors. Inflammatory products are rarely found in the spinal canal.

Course.—The course of tubercular meningitis is from three to ten days, although the symptoms may last from four to eight weeks, or even longer.

Child B. W., 5 years old. Father a physician and healthy. Mother healthy. Had just returned from the country in apparent good health. Was sent to school and seemed bright mentally and physically. Was a well-nourished child. Had had no previous illness excepting a disordered stomach. The first symptom of her present illness was headache. Had a coated tongue, loss of appetite and a slight rise of temperature, from 100° to 101° F. The temperature was very characteristic. (See chart.) The parents suspected a slight dyspeptic attack and gave her a laxative. Her diet was also corrected. In spite of cleansing the stomach and bowels, the headache persisted and reached such an acute stage that the child cried and moaned continuously, and did not sleep. When I first saw the case the symptoms of an acute gastric catarrh were so evident that nothing further was suspected. The headache persisted in spite of bromides. The child complained of ringing in the ears. Had twitchings of the arms and legs. The bowels assumed a normal color and consistency. An examination of the eyes with the ophthalmoscope was first made by Dr. H. Jarecky and later by Dr. Henry S. Oppenheimer, who found vision good, no choked disk—engorgement of veins only—slight reaction of pupils. No evidence of tubercular disease was found. In the beginning of this illness the symptoms of headache were very prominent. The child appeared quite rational and the diagnosis of supra-orbital neuralgia was made. Dr. George W. Jacoby, who saw the case at my request, early in the disease believed that we were dealing with meningitis. Later on, however, the symptoms were positive. Dr. Abraham Jacobi, who saw this case later in consultation, diagnosed meningitis. At his suggestion leeches were applied and they afforded quite some relief. The headache reappeared with renewed vigor and remained incessant throughout the period of illness. Owing to the continued pain it was decided to relieve the intracranial pressure by lumbar puncture. I aspirated 45 cubic centimeters of clear spinal fluid, which was sent to Dr. Billings, of the New York Health Department, for examination. He reported the presence of the tubercle bacillus and the diplococcus. Dr. B. Sachs confirmed the diagnosis of tubercular meningitis.

Strabismus was also present. There was marked facial paralysis. Nausea and vomiting occurred. There were spasms and twitchings, also a hæmiplegic paralysis. There was also a unilateral flush on the cheek and other well-marked evidences of vasomotor disturbances. The child was either soporose, in a semi-stupor, or crying and screaming with pain in the head. A distinct red streak remained when the skin was stroked with the finger nail, the so-called tache cérébrale. The Babinski reflex was also present. There was spastic rigidity of the entire body. The eyes were half open. Respiration was labored, at times—Cheyne-Stokes respiration. The pulse was small and compressible and varied between 80 and 160. The child died of extreme exhaustion and inanition, after suffering about ten days of terrible agony.

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—An irregular and intermitting pulse w Cheyne-Stokes respiration and slight elevation of temperature are amon the early symptoms of this disease. The pupils show irregularity; not frequently one pupil will be dilated, while the other may be a pin-poi

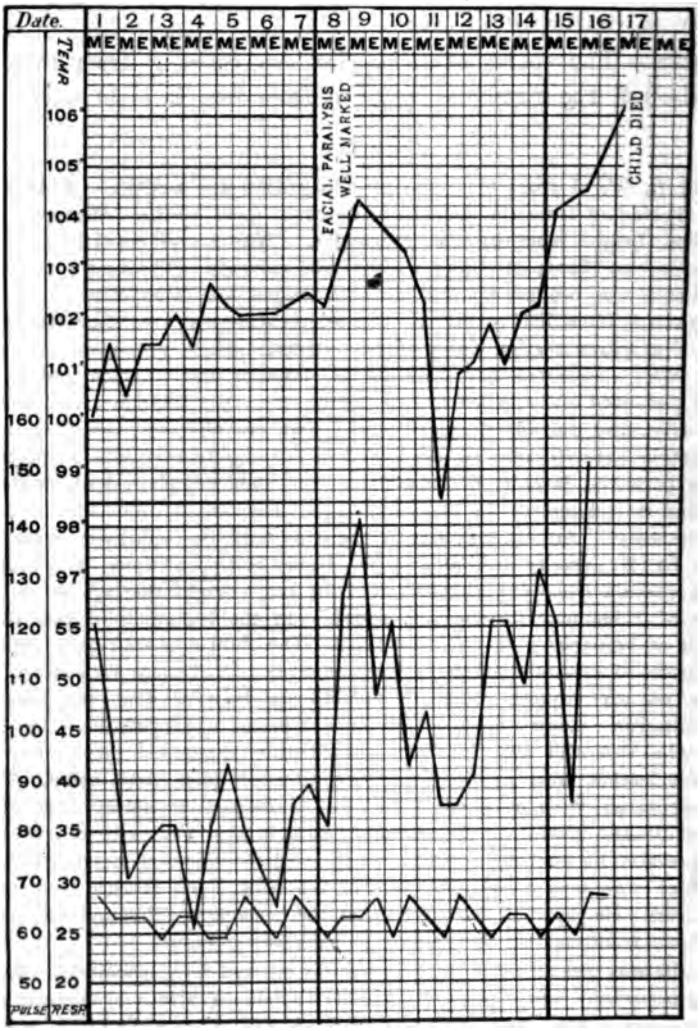


Fig. 267.—Case of Tuberculous Meningitis, well marked, ending fatally. (Original.)

Vomiting is an early symptom in many cases, and may continue in spite of rigid supervision of the diet, so that an organic lesion will be suspected. The vomiting is usually projectile in character. Later in the disease, the temperature ranges from 100° to 103° or even higher. The pulse may vary between 80 and 160 beats per minute. The respirations are increased and irregular in character, labored or sighing.

Tache Cérébrale.—The tache cérébrale is frequently present. This is produced by drawing the finger-nail quickly over the skin of the abdomen, arm, or leg, when a sharp, bright mark remains for several minutes.

Some symptoms come on very slowly. Intense headache is complained of and is usually supra-orbital in character. In the case referred to in this chapter the symptoms were masked for a number of days. The eyes usually show tubercles in the choroid. In the case reported here, although the eyes were examined by two competent oculists, no evidence of disease could be found. Strabismus as well as facial paralysis are frequently seen as evidence of paralysis. Twitchings are frequently noticed.

The Babinski reflex is very often present.

The child sleeps with its eyes half open. There is marked evidence of vasomotor disturbance, such as unilateral flushes, and spastic rigidity of the entire body is repeatedly seen.

Lumbar puncture will usually show a clear cerebro-spinal fluid. In this fluid the tubercle bacilli can be located. In some cases other pathogenic bacteria—for example, the streptococcus—can be found.

Inoculation of skin with tuberculin—von Pirquet test—is helpful in making the diagnosis.

The prognosis is bad. I do not know of a single case of distinct tubercular meningitis that finally recovered.

Treatment.—Lumbar puncture should in all cases be performed. For details regarding technique of lumbar puncture see chapter on "Epidemic Cerebro-spinal Meningitis." Tapping the fourth or fifth ventricle will certainly relieve intra-cranial pressure. No more than 15 to 25 cubic centimeters should be withdrawn at one aspiration. I look upon this as a very valuable diagnostic as well as therapeutic measure. The head should be shaved, and an ice-bag or ice-coil applied continuously. Next in importance several leeches should be applied behind the ears, over the mastoid process of the temporal bone. Cerebral engorgement can also be relieved by applying leeches to the alæ nasi; this will drain the blood through the frontal sinus. Rectal medication should be remembered.

Large doses (5 to 10 grains) of sodium bromide and sodium iodide should be given until quiet is insured. The bowels should be cleansed by a thorough irrigation with glycerine and water. Iodoform collodion (10 per cent.) can be applied to the scalp, thoroughly, once or twice.

Inunctions with unguentum Credé or mercurial ointment, at the nape of the neck, rubbed into the lymphatics, for at least twenty minutes several times a day, will frequently do some good.

Peptonized milk, whey, soups, broths, zoolak, and buttermilk are indicated. Under no conditions should solid food be administered. If the child is in a coma, rectal feeding must be resorted to. (For details see chapter on "Rectal Feeding.")

CEREBRO-SPINAL MENINGITIS (ACUTE MENINGITIS, SPOTTED FEVER, OR MALIGNANT PURPURIC FEVER).

Cerebro-spinal meningitis is an acute infectious disease characterized by a sudden onset of symptoms.

Bacteriology and Etiology.—The presence of the diplococcus intracellularis of Weichselbaum is usually the causative agent of this disease. In a few cases, streptococci; in others, pneumococci have been found.

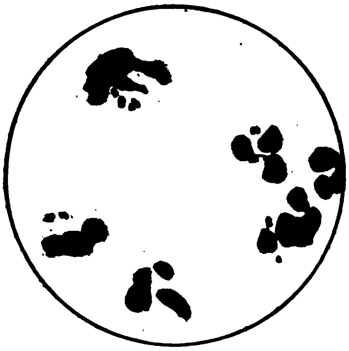
Weichselbaum states that he believes the meningococcus is frequently present and lies dormant in the crypts of the tonsils and pharynx. For this reason he believes that, when a lowered vitality exists due to subnormal conditions, then the meningococcus gains access through the lymph channels to the meninges and sets up an acute and sudden infection. In addition to the presence of the meningococcus in the tonsils, this pathogenic microbe is frequently found in the nose from whence it probably gains access through the frontal sinuses and reaches the brain. The meningococcus can be transmitted and an infection disseminated by direct contact with infected secretions containing the diplococcus intracellularis. Weichselbaum does not believe that the sudden appearance of a case of cerebro-spinal meningitis, in an otherwise healthy locality, is extraordinary when the etiological conditions, such as the possibility of harboring this diplococcus in the nose and throat, are remembered.

Pathology.—In the early stage of this disease we note hyperæmic conditions in the brain and spinal cord. When the disease has progressed, the arachnoid appears cloudy, especially along the course of the blood-vessels from which a purulent exudate oozes. This purulent exudate involves all the tissues of the convexity and frequently extends to the base in the meshes of the pia and between it and the cortex. The fluid in the ventricles is as a rule increased, and may contain small flocculi of fibrin. Hæmorrhage is frequently noted in this region. The joints show evidences of septic inflammation. The spleen is frequently enlarged. Evidences of infection and sepsis are present in all parts of the intestinal organs of the body. Multiple abscesses may occur, and not infrequently parenchymatous degenerations involve the kidneys, liver, and spleen.

Purpuric spots or mottling, so frequently seen on the outside of the body, may sometimes be seen more distinctly in the internal organs.

Climatic Conditions.—The greatest number of cases occur during the winter months, while sporadic cases are seen in the spring, summer, and fall months.

PLATE XXXVIII



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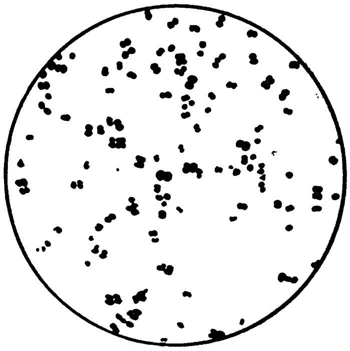

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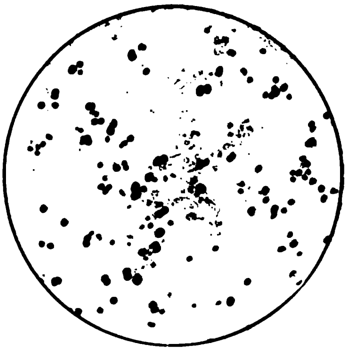

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1. Meningococcus or Diplococcus Intracellularis, derived from a lumbar puncture of a typical case. (Courtesy of Prof. A. Weichselbaum, of Vienna.)
2. Meningococcus Intracellularis, from a typical case of Cerebro-spinal Meningitis. Pure culture. (Courtesy of Prof. A. Weichselbaum, of Vienna.)
3. Micrococcus Catarrhalis. Pure culture. (Courtesy of Prof. Ghon, of Vienna.) (Original.)

TABLE No. 77.—*Deaths from Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis in Children under 15 years. New York City—1902-1907.*

Year.	Old New York City.	Greater New York City.
1902........	156	221
1903........	158	225
1904........	805	1056
1905........		2775
1906........		1032
1907........		828

Symptoms.—During the epidemic there were three classes of cases encountered: first, a mild type; second, a severe type; and third, an abortive type.

Mild Type.—In this class of cases there is a slight rise of temperature, generally malaise, and perhaps vomiting.

Abortive Type.—This type is usually seen in strong children who are able to withstand a severe infection. By reason of their health they are infected in a lesser degree, as shown by their symptoms and the rapidity of their convalescence. The onset is usually sudden, and I have seen meningeal symptoms subside within ten days with no sequelæ. This happened in a case of a child with undoubted cerebrospinal meningitis, in which the diagnosis was confirmed by the bacteriological examination of the spinal fluid. Rhinitis with catarrhal discharge from the nose is sometimes an early symptom in this disease. Rhinitis is frequently found in the abortive type of the disease. The danger of having the meningococcus in the nose consists in the ease with which this pathogenic bacterium can enter the frontal sinus and thus give rise to encephalitis. In the abortive type of this disease there frequently is a nasal discharge in which the meningococcus intracellularis can be found long after the rhinitis has disappeared. The ambulatory cases are the ones which disseminate this infection because they carry the pathogenic bacteria from house to house.

Severe Type.—In the severe type there is a sudden onset of symptoms. In older children a distinct chill is usually the first symptom noted. The skin feels hot. The temperature rises anywhere between 102-105° F. (38.8 and 40.6° C.), in the rectum. The pulse varies; it may be slow or very rapid. The respiration is irregular in character, sometimes sighing, and labored, but most frequently Cheyne-Stokes in character. Later on there is vomiting, pain in the head, in the frontal or occipital regions, and pain at the back of the neck. There is moaning and frequently delirium. Vasomotor disturbances, such as the flushing of one ear or one cheek, are occasionally seen. The *tache cérébrale* is usually noted when stroking the breast with the finger nail, as a distinct hyperæmia follows and remains for several minutes. The tendons are very sensitive to the slightest pressure. The patellar reflexes are usually absent. When the thigh is flexed on the abdomen and we try to extend the leg there is considerable latent contraction, the so-called Kernig sign. This symptom alone should not be depended upon. Hyperextension of the big toe produced by stroking the sole of the foot, the so-called Babinski reflex, is not always present. It is also frequently noted in perfectly healthy children. In a series of fifty children examined by me, the Babinski reflex was found in forty.

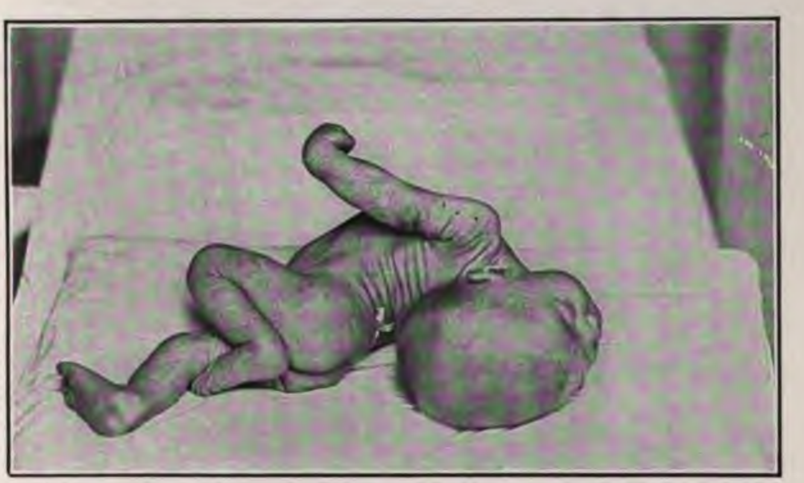
Brudzinski's neck sign in tuberculous and other types of meningitis is present in 100 per cent. of those ill with either cerebrospinal meningitis, serous or pneumococcous meningitis.

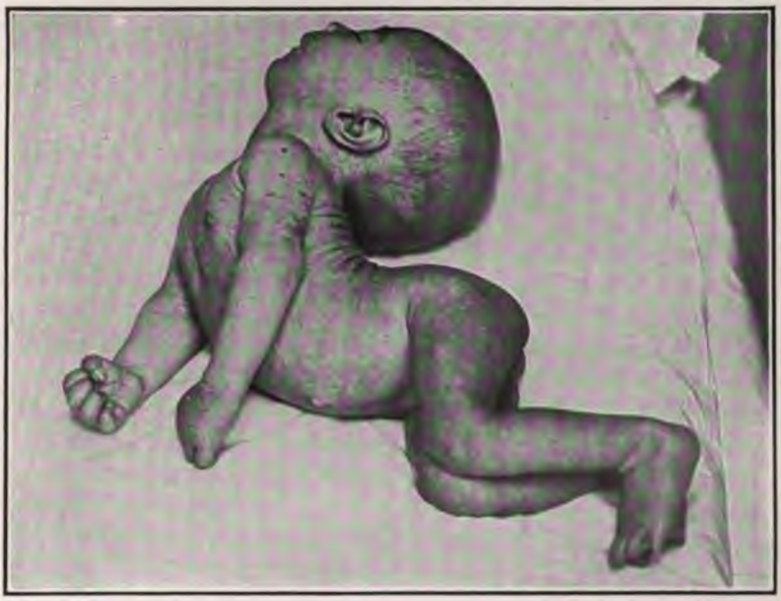
Technique to Elicit Neck Sign.—The head is forcibly flexed with the left hand while the child is lying flat on its back; with the right hand, pressure is exerted on the chest to keep the child from being lifted. If the sign is positive, both legs will flex on the thighs and the thighs on the abdomen.

The identical collateral sign consists in flexing the leg on the thigh and the thigh on the abdomen, when the opposite lower member will assume the same position.

The normal cytology of the cerebrospinal fluid varies from 0 to about 7 lymphocytes per cubic millimeter. In any meningeal irritation, acute or chronic, the lymphocytes increase in number. They may be increased indefinitely up to thousands.

In a number of cerebrospinal fluids from infants, examined by Kaplan, he found that in the tubercular forms the lymphocytes predominate. In the other acute meningitides of children the polynuclears and lymphocytes claim about equal or nearly equal relations. It is marvelous how readily the polynuclears diminish if the case shows the slightest tendency to improve, and, *vice versâ*, they increase as the inflammatory process grows worse. *Pari passu* with the polynuclear increase the Fehling reaction disappears. This point is extremely important, as there are a number of cases of tubercular meningitis where the tubercle bacillus cannot be found even if the antiformin or the Jousset method is used. In these instances I consider the copper-reducing substance in the cerebrospinal fluid as highly suggestive of the tubercular nature of the meningitis. The non-reduction of the Fehling solution or the appearance of a violet color change instead, in Kaplan's opinion, is significant of the non-tubercular nature of the affection unless a mixed infection is at hand. In case a double infection is demonstrated microscopically, the invader that has the upper hand in the infection usually reflects upon the behavior of the cerebrospinal fluid with the Fehling solution. If it is the tubercle bacillus it will reduce; if it is





Cerebrospinal Meningitis. Autopsy showed a yellowish-green, mucopurulent exudate, cheesy in character, covering the anterior two-thirds of the cerebrum. The fluid obtained by lumbar puncture as well as that by intraventricular aspiration showed a pure influenza bacillus. The autopsy was performed by Dr. John Larkin. The fluid examined by Dr. Sophian and Dr. M. D. Kaplan.

another organism it will not. The latter phenomenon is due to the fact that it produces a marked increase in the polynuclears, which in some way are responsible for the non-reduction. The importance of cerebro-spinal fluid examinations in pædiatrics needs no emphasis.

Either constipation or diarrhœa may be present. The bladder acts well, although enuresis may exist. In some cases there is a marked retention of urine. The joints are usually swollen, simulating rheumatism. There is also a distinct petechial eruption in some cases. Out of a series of twenty-two cases seen by me, six had distinct petechia. In six others the skin had a distinct eruption resembling scarlet fever. Owing to the spots present in this condition, the disease was frequently termed "spotted fever." The pupils are usually dilated; they are sometimes irregular. I have seen cases during the epidemic of 1905 in which one pupil showed marked dilatation, while the other pupil was contracted to almost a pinpoint. Strabismus is a frequent symptom. Occasionally we note nystagmus. Photophobia is a frequent symptom. In one of my cases the child cried whenever a lighted candle was brought near the eyes. Opisthotonos is usually present. The severe rigidity of the sternocleidomastoid muscle in addition to the marked rigidity of the arms and legs forms a very prominent symptom during the course of the disease. Owing to these severe contractures we usually note constant moaning, most likely induced by the pain caused by the said contractures.

Diagnosis.—A positive diagnosis of this disease can be made by examining the fluid drawn by lumbar puncture. As a rule the spinal fluid is turbid or opaque. We do not find the spinal fluid clear and transparent, as it is seen in tuberculous meningitis. The presence of the characteristic diplococcus intracellularis described by Weichselbaum is usually noted. In rare cases the streptococcus and the pneumococcus have been found, but these latter are the exception. The bacteriological diagnosis, according to Weichselbaum, depends on the diplococcus being Gram negative, or decolorized by Gram. It is important to remember that the *Micrococcus catarrhalis* is frequently found in the nasal passage; hence, great care must be exercised to differentiate the same, both in its relation to Gram staining and also in its morphological characters.

The following two cases will serve to illustrate the method of treatment:—

CASE I.—Emilio G., four months old, was admitted to the Sydenham Hospital, January 6, 1909. Family history negative.

Personal History.—Normal delivery. Full term. Bottle-fed since birth.

Present illness began two weeks ago with twitchings of the muscles. One week ago mother noticed retraction of the head. There had been no vomiting. The baby had moaned almost constantly.

Physical Examination.—Head showed bald occiput. The anterior fontanel was open and slightly bulging. The pupils were equal and slightly contracted. There was marked retraction of the head, amounting to opisthotonos. The chest showed poor expansion. There was a systolic murmur heard at the apex of the heart. The lungs over left base, posteriorly, showed small areas of dullness, bronchial voice, and breathing. The abdomen was retracted. The liver and spleen were not palpable. There was marked rigidity of both arms and legs. The reflexes were exaggerated. Kernig's sign was not elicited. Lumbar puncture showed turbid fluid in which the *Diplococcus intracellularis* was found.

The duration of the disease was thirty-six days. By means of ten lumbar punctures, I aspirated 146 cubic centimeters spinal fluid, and in nine intraspinal injections, I injected 245 cubic centimeters Flexner serum. The average injection was about 30 cubic centimeters. The child made a complete recovery without any sequelæ.

CASE II.—*Intraventricular Method of Serum Injection.*—Dora R.,[1] two months old, was admitted to the Babies' Ward of the Sydenham Hospital, October 2, 1909; she was a well-nourished, breast-fed infant, having had no previous illness. There was a sudden onset with vomiting, loss of appetite, rigidity of head, neck, and extremities, rolling of the eyeballs, insomnia, and convulsive movements. The anterior fontanel was open one-half inch in diameter, and slightly bulging. The posterior fontanel was almost closed. The pupils were equal, and reacted sluggishly to accommodation and light.

The thorax, ears, and throat were excluded as a possible source of disease.

On the fifth day after admission, and on two succeeding days, lumbar puncture was performed resulting in dry tap. With the three successive dry taps, the symptoms of rigidity, opisthotonus, fever, and twitching increased.

On October 20th, I decided to tap the lateral ventricles by entering the anterior fontanel at the right angle.[2] The aspiration needle, about 8 centimeters in length, was introduced downward and toward the median line, at an angle of about 20 degrees, to a depth of about 4.5 centimeters, the needle entering the lateral ventricles near the median line. About 15 cubic centimeters of turbid purulent fluid were withdrawn, which was identified at the Rockefeller Institute as a meningococcus intracellularis. The ventricles were then irrigated with normal saline solution, at body temperature. The excess fluid was allowed to drain out through the needle, and 25 cubic centimeters of Flexner anti-meningitis serum were slowly injected into the ventricles. During the injection of the serum the infant changed in color from a waxy pallor to a uniform red flush all over the body. One-half hour after the injection of the serum the infant still remained flushed, perspired profusely, and had some frothing at the mouth. Otherwise the general condition was good. The temperature was 98° F.; respiration, 80, and pulse, 120.

On October 21st, the ventricles were again irrigated with 40 cubic centimeters of normal saline solution, and 20 cubic centimeters of serum were injected.

October 24th, the child's general condition was very poor. Opisthotonos was marked. The body rigidly bent in the form of a bow. The arms were rigidly extended and the palms everted outward.

October 25th, and during the following week, daily injections of 30-50 cubic centimeters of serum were injected either into the ventricles or, on two days, into the spinal canal and lateral ventricles. The total amount of Flexner serum injected was 180 cubic centimeters; the total amount retained in the ventricles and spinal canal was about 100 cubic centimeters. The child made a complete recovery.

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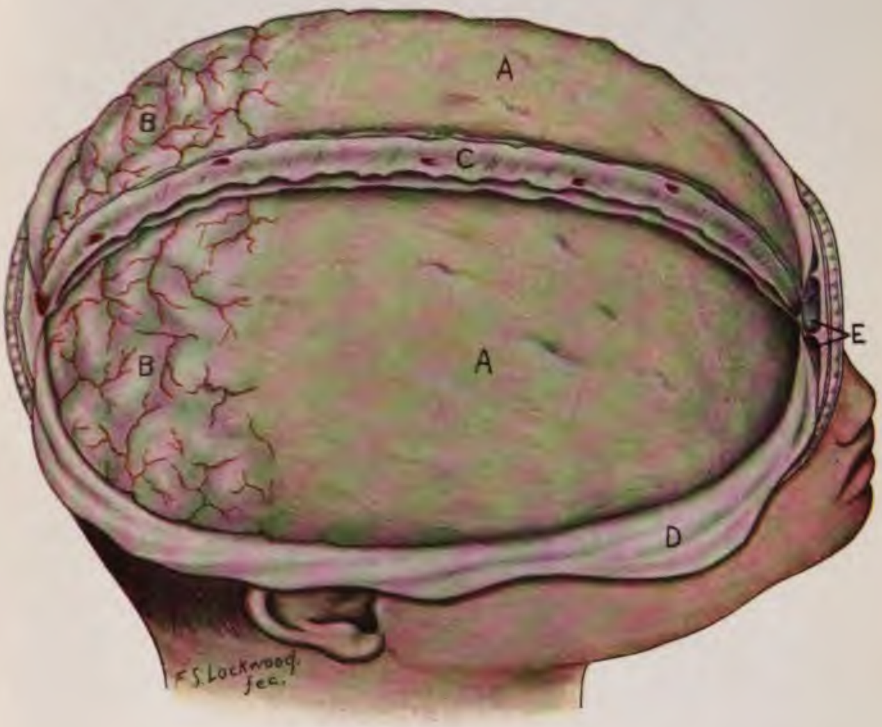
[1] This case was presented at the Section on Pediatrics, New York Academy of Medicine, March 10, 1910.

[2] See Plate XLI.

PLATE XL



Cerebrospinal Meningitis due to the Influenza Bacillus. *A*, *A*. Anterior cerebrum covered with a thick muco-purulent exudate. *B*, *B*. Normal cerebrum. *C*. Superior longitudinal sinus. *D*. Reflected integuments. *E*. Frontal sinus. This infection has been seen by me in an infant 4 months old. The infection probably enters through the lymph channels in the nasopharynx, thus reaching the base of the brain. The bacillus may also have entered through the frontal sinus. In the spinal fluid as well as in the ventricular fluid a pure culture of the influenza bacillus was found. The infant died of convulsions. The autopsy performed by Dr. John Larkin showed the anterior two-thirds of the cerebrum was covered with a thick, muco-purulent, greenish exudate, cheesy in character. The convolutions of the cerebrum were obliterated and covered by a thick exudate, the surface of which was marked by many whitish nodules and a number of pits near the falx cerebri. At the frontal lobe of brain on right side a dark, necrotic area was seen. Illustration shows the calvarium removed, the dura mater incised longitudinally on either side of the superior longitudinal sinuses and reflected laterally, exposing the entire cerebrum.

The symptoms are gradually subsiding, the rigidity is lessened, but on being handled opisthotonus is very evident.

November 29th. No decided change, but infant improving slowly. The lateral ventricles were aspirated and 50 cubic centimeters of clear fluid which did not contain the meningococcus withdrawn.

December 6th. Infant was discharged cured. No complication of eyes and ears existed.

It is now two months since this infant was discharged, she has since developed a tooth, sleeps well, nurses well, and is a happy healthy infant.

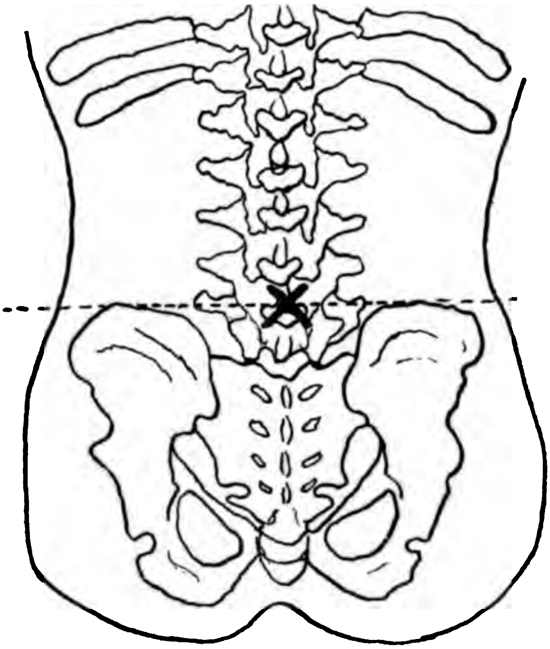


Fig. 268.—Anatomical Illustration Showing the Place Best Adapted for Lumbar Puncture. The needle should be inserted in the lumbar space shown by the cross. (Original.)

Lumbar Puncture.[1]—The subarachnoid space is frequently tapped for diagnostic and therapeutic purposes. Either space between the third and fourth, or the fourth and fifth, lumbar vertebræ may be chosen. The child is placed on either side with the spinal curve toward the operator, in this way spreading the vertebræ so that the greater angle formed by the vertebræ is toward the operator. An imaginary line drawn through the crest of the ilium to the spine is an easy means of locating the place to puncture.

Kind of Needle Required.—In making a lumbar puncture we should use such a needle as would be required in making a puncture for empyema.

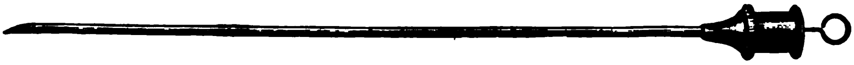


Fig. 269.—Lumbar Puncture Needle.

The needle should be pushed a little upward and forward until it enters the spinal canal, then the stylet should be withdrawn. If the fluid does not escape through the needle, then withdraw it slightly and reintroduce the stylet to dislodge any obstruction in the caliber of the needle. Make the puncture as simple as possible rather than lacerate the tissue around the vertebral column and cause bleeding by lateral movements of the needle.

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[1] First described by Quincke.

Amount of Fluid to be Withdrawn.—For diagnostic purposes 15 to 20 cubic centimeters should be withdrawn, if the fluid is watery and clear. If the spinal fluid is turbid, then the more we can withdraw, the better. I have withdrawn as much as 50 to 60 cubic centimeters. If the diplococcus intracellularis is found in the spinal fluid, it is especially important to withdraw as much of the fluid as possible.

The site of puncture should be closed with a strip of adhesive plaster.

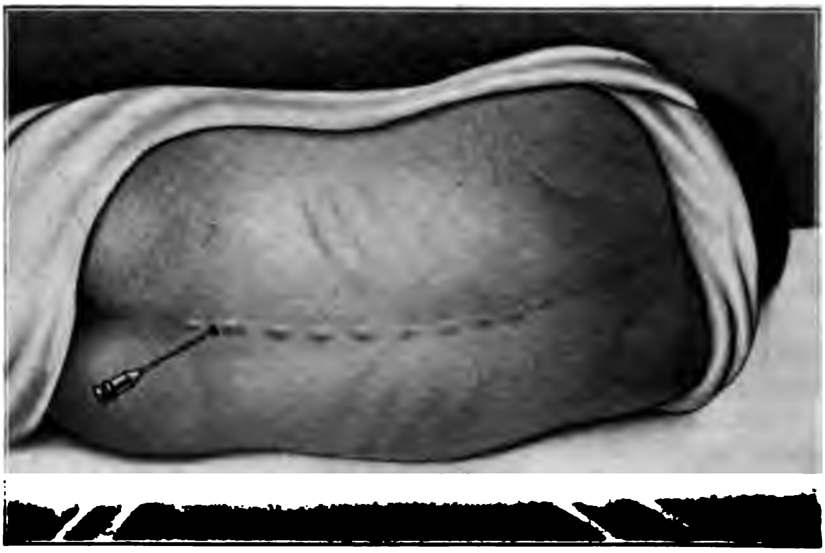

Fig. 270.—Lumbar Puncture Made Between Fourth and Fifth Lumbar Vertebræ.

Local Anæsthesia.—Ethyl chloride in the form of a spray is useful in very sensitive children. It is not necessary to have general anæsthesia during this procedure. General rules of asepsis must be strictly applied to the child's skin, the operator's hands, and to the needle used.

Dry Tap in Lumbar Puncture.—We may have a dry tap:—

1. If the caliber of the needle is small, and the spinal fluid very thick.

2. If adhesions are present at the base of the brain, preventing the passage of fluid from the ventricles to the subarachnoid space.

3. If a successful puncture has been made, a dry tap may follow, due to inflammatory adhesions caused by the previous introduction of the needle.

4. The closing of the foramen of Magendie is the most frequent result of the inflammatory process, resulting in dry tap.

5. A fibrin clot or the presence of the cord in front of the needle may prevent the outflow of the cerebro-spinal fluid.

To be sure that we are in the spinal canal, if a dry tap exists, leave the needle *in situ* and introduce a second needle two spaces lower. Sterile water if injected through the upper needle will flow out of the lower needle, proving that we are in the spinal canal.

The spinal cord in infants terminates about the level of the lumbar vertebræ. The introduction of the needle is simplest between the third and fourth, or the fourth and fifth, lumbar vertebræ. In these interspaces there is no cord; hence no injury can follow. An imaginary line drawn through the crest of the ilium corresponds to the fourth intercostal space.

Prognosis and Sequelæ.—Heretofore the prognosis was always bad; since the introduction of the Flexner serum a decided improvement has been noted. Where formerly 70 to 80 cases died and only 20 to 30 cases recovered, we now have the reverse, 70 to 80 recoveries and only 20 to 30 deaths. The prognosis is better if the serum treatment is given early in the disease.

The duration of this disease may be short or very long. Young infants have been attended by me more than two months before recovery took place. Some cases after serum treatment recover entirely; others have atrophy of the optic nerve resulting in blindness. Deafness is a frequent and permanent injury in some cases.

Treatment.—*Fever Treatment.*—Antipyretic measures such as cold packs, ice bag on the head, and tub baths are indicated. The coal-tar products, owing to their depressing effect upon the heart, should be avoided. Cupping of the neck and spine sometimes relieves internal congestion. Lumbar puncture should be performed.

Eliminative Treatment.—This consists in cleansing the gastro-intestinal tract with the aid of citrate of magnesia or calomel. When high fever exists, flushing the rectum and colon with a cold soap-suds enema will be found useful.

Medicinal Treatment.—To relieve the vomiting cracked ice should be given, in addition to 1-grain doses of menthol. To relieve muscular spasm, twitching, and delirium, hyoscine hydrobromate, in doses of $^1/_{600}$ to $^1/_{300}$ grain, should be given and repeated every few hours. Morphine hypodermically, in doses of $^1/_{50}$ grain, gradually increased, is also valuable. Leeches applied at the nape of the neck, or over the mastoid portion of the temporal bone, or at the alæ nasi will sometimes relieve. Sodium bromide, in 5- to 30- grain doses, may be given until the systemic effect is noted. Codeine, $^1/_{10}$ grain gradually increased until ½ grain is given, will frequently soothe the nervous system. The soothing effect of a warm bath is generally recognized. The bath should be given at a temperature of 100° to 105° F. in a bathtub of water to which ¼ to ½ pound of sulphur has been added. A warm sulphur bath may be given twice a day. The duration of each bath should be at least ten to thirty minutes.

Meningitis Serum.[1]—The specific value of the anti-meningitis serum has been demonstrated many times. In some cases reported there has been a sudden crisis and an amelioration of all the symptoms. My experience has been especially good in young infants under one year. While formerly all infants of tender age died, we now have a number of cases reported, including my own, in which absolute recovery has taken place.

Intraspinal Injections.—By lumbar puncture we aspirate as much of the spinal fluid as possible; in some cases 15 to 30 cubic centimeters were obtained. Through the same needle left *in situ* I inject from 30 to 60 cubic centimeters of Flexner's serum. The serum should be warmed before injecting, and should be injected slowly. It is better to elevate the hips and lower the head when injecting the serum. Daily injections of 30 to 60 cubic centimeters are required if no improvement is noted.

Intracranial Injections.[2]—The scalp should be shaved and prepared with the usual aseptic precautions. The aspirating needle must be rendered sterile by boiling. It is then pushed through the anterior fontanel downward and inward into the ventricles of the brain, at least one inch or more. The needle is inserted about one-fourth inch to one side of the longitudinal sinus.

Kocher advocates puncturing through the frontal lobe at a point 2½ centimeters from the middle line and 3 centimeters anterior to the central fissure—a point lying somewhat in front of the bregma. The needle must penetrate 4 or 5 centimeters before it reaches the ventricles and should be directed somewhat downward and backward.

The ventricles at this situation are broad, extending fully 2 centimeters from the middle line, and there is practically no risk of hæmorrhage during the passage of the needle. With experience and after practice on the cadaver, punctures may be safely made, not only at the point of Keen and Kocher, but elsewhere if need be—through the anterior pole of the frontal lobe, through the pole of the occipital lobe, etc.; but these methods are more hazardous than those detailed above, and should only be undertaken by operators who are particularly familiar with intracranial work. In infected cases with a beginning external meningitis, there is always a certain risk of inoculating an uninfected ventricle. The same accident has occurred owing to the passage of an occluded needle through an abscess and then into the ventricle. A trochar should not be used. It is advisable to employ a needle with a sharply blunt point, which will pass by vessels without cutting them.

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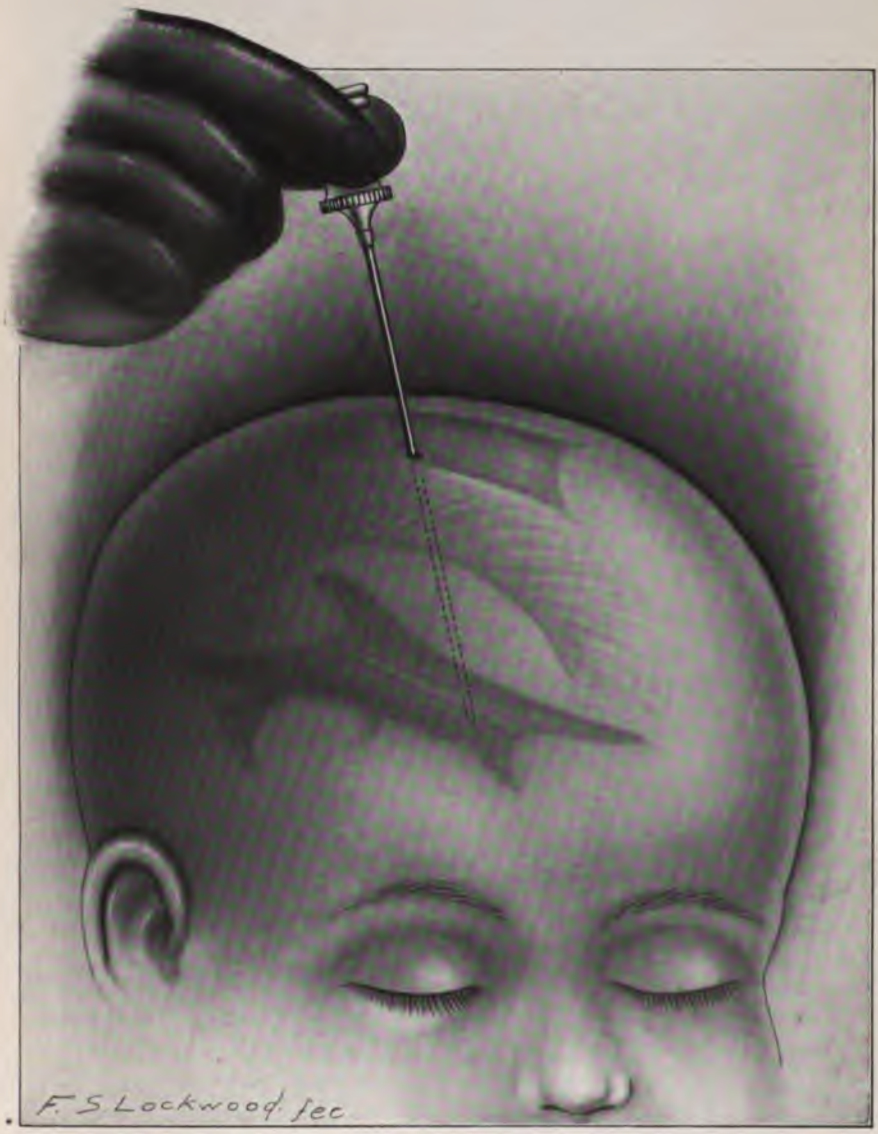
[1] I am indebted to Dr. Simon Flexner, of the Rockefeller Institute, for the anti meningitis serum used in these cases.

[2] I am indebted to my house staff, Dr. Bobrow, Dr. Churman, Dr. Littenberg, and Dr Freund, for careful notes and records of a series of cerebro-spinal meningitis cases treated at the hospital. See clinical case, page 788.

PLATE XLI



Translucent Head of Child. The needle entering the outer angle of the anterior fontanelle, and penetrating the lateral ventricle, which is seen in shaded outline. The falx is dimly seen. The right line running from before backwards is the septum lucidum dividing the two ventricles. (Original.)

The opening in the needle should be on the side and not upon the point; else they become plugged by the brain matter.

At the Babies' Wards of the Sydenham Hospital we have aspirated, many times, 50 cubic centimeters of purulent liquid containing the diplococcus intracellularis in almost a pure culture. By using this same needle, or one having a larger caliber, we irrigated, using a pint of normal saline solution. After draining off as much as possible, 50 cubic centimeters of Flexner's serum were injected. This plan of treatment was successfully used in two of my cases. In both cases the lumbar puncture yielded a dry tap.

The purulent discharge gradually lessened and the meningococci gradually disappeared after continued serum injections extending over a period of four weeks. It was possible to aspirate and draw off between 50 and 60 cubic centimeters of a clear, transparent hydrocephalic fluid containing no germs.

A decided reaction followed each and every injection of serum. During the injection of serum, the child changed in color from a waxy pallor to a uniform red flush all over the body. One-half hour after the injection of the serum, the child still remained flushed and perspired profusely, and had some frothy mucus at the mouth.

The pulse-rate was increased, the volume improved, and the tension much higher. The leucocytes were invariably increased. The polynuclear leucocytes were also increased after each injection. As a rule the mononuclear leucocytes and the lymphocytes were reduced within six hours after the serum injection.

In the treatment of the severe type of cerebro-spinal meningitis, we must persist even though convulsions recur. We must afford relief by draining the ventricles of as much of the cerebro-spinal fluid as possible. This must be followed up by an intraspinal injection of sufficient antimeningitis serum, as previously mentioned in this article. One of my cases was saved, although the prognosis was absolutely fatal, by the persistence of the above-outlined treatment.

In an infant having an open fantanel it is a simple plan to aspirate the lateral ventricle, and thus relieve the intracranial pressure. I have frequently found persistent convulsions that would cease soon after the ventricles were relieved of the intracranial fluid.

No one should expect to cure a case unless life is sustained with sufficient nutrition. Food must be given by mouth if possible. If the jaws are rigid, due to spasm, we must resort to rectal feeding of peptonized milk or peptonized yolk of egg with an equal quantity of starch water. The method of rectal feeding consists in first cleansing the rectum and colon by an injection of a pint of soap water, and after the parts are thoroughly cleansed, injecting quickly through a long catheter into the colon two or three ounces of the peptonized food.

Feeding.—Unless the strength is supported by food our patient will die of exhaustion. Feeding by mouth with peptonized milk, broth, gruel, and eggs is indicated. If, however, there is vomiting and the stomach does not retain food, then rectal feeding should be resorted to at intervals of three or four hours. This method of feeding has already been described in the chapter on "Infant Feeding."

After Treatment.—If the case progresses favorably, careful attention must be given to restorative treatment. Codliver-oil, Fowler's solution, iodide of sodium, and the hypophosphites must not be forgotten. Electricity must not be forgotten combined with massage and sea-salt bathing. They are indicated during convalescence. Milk, cream, butter, eggs and cereals should form the bulk of restorative nutrition. A decided change of air from the city to the sea-shore or to the mountains will prove beneficial.

ACUTE PACHYMENINGITIS (INFLAMMATION OF THE DURA MATER).

This condition frequently follows middle-ear disease, although it may be the result of injury to the cranium. It is frequently associated with inflammation of the pia mater (leptomeningitis). It is very difficult to diagnose. It usually follows ear disease and the symptoms of meningitis are associated. The treatment is surgical.

CHRONIC PACHYMENINGITIS.

Chronic pachymeningitis can be divided into two forms—hæmorrhagic and non-hæmorrhagic. There may be punctate hæmorrhages or there may be very large hæmorrhagic areas. Some authors state that this condition is very rare. It affects the inner layer of the dura mater. It is frequently called pseudo-membranous and hæmorrhagic, or hæmatoma of the dura mater.

In cases where life is prolonged for years, there may be partial or even complete absorption of the clot, followed by the formation of cysts, considerable inflammatory thickening of the pia with deposits of blood pigment, and finally atrophy and sclerosis of the cortex. The source of the hæmorrhage may be the rupture of a single large vessel, but more frequently the blood comes from many small vessels.

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—It is very difficult to give positive symptoms by which this condition can be recognized during life. Coma, convulsions, stupor, and vomiting are the main symptoms. Unilateral hæmorrhage causes rigidity affecting one arm and leg, but if the hæmorrhage is diffused all the extremities are affected. The pupils may be dilated or contracted; sometimes one pupil is dilated and the other is contracted. The respiration and pulse are slow and irregular. There is usually fever, the temperature being as high as 105° or as low as 100° F.

Opisthotonos may be absent. The patellar reflex is usually exaggerated. Convulsions appear and death ends the scene.

The differential diagnosis, according to Holt, is as follows: "Without large hæmorrhages, pachymeningitis interna cannot be diagnosticated; and it is impossible to differentiate the hæmorrhagic cases from other varieties of meningeal hæmorrhage. It is important to make a diagnosis between pachymeningitis with hæmorrhage, and acute simple meningitis. In the former we have a sudden onset; stupor occurring early, usually on the first day, gradually diminishing in cases of recovery, or deepening into coma in fatal cases; localized or general paralysis, also occurring early; there is no fever in the beginning, and only moderate fever at the close. In acute meningitis we usually have a higher temperature, especially early in the disease; coma develops later, and rigidity of the extremities is less pronounced. In certain cases, however, where the hæmorrhage occurs in the course of some other disease, a differential diagnosis may be impossible."

The prognosis is usually fatal. If small hæmorrhages take place, the paralysis may remain for years.

Treatment. — The scalp should be shaved and an ice-bag applied. Leeches should be applied to the mastoid to relieve cerebral congestion. Large doses of bromide and ergot will sometimes do good. The emunctories must be carefully watched and aided if necessary.

CEREBRAL PARALYSIS (SPASTIC DIPLEGIA. PARAPLEGIA. HÆMIPLEGIA).

There are two forms of palsy usually seen. When the face, arm, or leg is palsied it is called monoplegia. When the two lower extremities are affected, paraplegia. When one side is affected, hæmiplegia. When both sides are affected, diplegia.

They occur in one of three periods: first, during intra-uterine life (prenatal); second, traumatism during labor; third, palsies after birth of the child.

Etiology.—Injury to the mother frequently injures the cerebrum of the fœtus. Toxic conditions, especially those associated with the infectious disease resulting in muscular degeneration, frequently cause palsy. Compression of the infantile brain and its circulation during a slow labor may produce thrombosis or meningeal hæmorrhage. This condition is most liable to occur in a primipara. Whooping-cough has caused cerebral hæmorrhage and injury and compression to the cortex ending in paralysis.

Syphilis may be a frequent cause of this condition. Epilepsy is found in over two-thirds of all cases as a sequela.

Pathology.—Very interesting data are contributed by **Peterson** and **Sachs,** to whom I am indebted for the following classification:—

TABLE No. 78.

Groups.	Pathological Changes.
I. Paralyses of intra-uterine onset.	LARGE CEREBRAL DEFECTS (true porencephaly). HÆMORRHAGES OF INTRA-UTERINE origin (softening?). AGENESIS CORTICALIS.
II. Paralyses occurring during labor.	MENINGEAL HÆMORRHAGE (very seldom intra-cerebral). Resulting conditions: meningo-encephalitis chronica; sclerosis; cysts; atrophies (porencephalies).
III. Paralyses acquired after birth.	MENINGEAL HÆMORRHAGE (very seldom intra-cerebral); EMBOLISM; THROMBOSIS (in marantic conditions and occasionally from syphilitic endarteritis). Results of these vascular lesions; cysts; softening; atrophy; sclerosis (diffuse and lobar). CHRONIC MENINGITIS. HYDROCEPHALUS (seldom the sole cause). PRIMARY ENCEPHALITIS (Strümpell) (?).

"A summary of the pathological lesions resulting from acute apoplexies consists of atrophies, sclerosis, and other changes due to hæmorrhage; also, embolism and thrombosis."

"Fatty degeneration of the blood-vessels is the probable explanation of the escape of blood in a large number of cases." Heart lesions, pneumonia, and other infectious diseases predispose to embolism.

The secondary changes result in sclerosis or areas of softening. "The sclerosis is largely responsible for the imbecility and epilepsy; transverse fibers connecting intimately all parts of the hemispheres."

Spencer studied 130 cases of still-born children. He found 53 cases due to hæmorrhage from the pia and arachnoid. In 29 cases there was bilateral hæmorrhage, 10 in the left side only; 10 in the right side; 7 in the lateral ventricles; 6 at the base of the brain; 1 case of intra-cerebral hæmorrhage; 4 cases of thrombosis of the longitudinal sinus.

The following case occurred in the practice of Dr. A. C. Cotton, of Chicago:—

Edith N., age 10 years, oldest in family of four children. Others normal. Mother not in good health during gestation. Labor lasted twelve hours. No forceps. Child was always irritable, but had no convulsions until four months of age, when first tooth appeared. There were frequent recurrences of spasms, two to four daily. Has never walked, stood alone, nor been able to support her head. The circumference of the head was nineteen inches.

Present Condition.—The skin is cool, with a tendency to cyanosis. The body is emaciated; there is a flaring of the ribs, and the spleen shows a distinct scoliosis.

The mouth is open so that the saliva constantly dribbles. The jaws are deformed and the face presents a starched appearance. There are contractures and spasticity in both upper and lower extremities. The reflexes are exaggerated. Intelligence *nil.*

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—The following symptoms are common to all forms of palsy: Rigidity of the muscles, contraction of tendons, and exaggeration of all the deep reflexes. Convulsions and coma commonly precede the diseased state. Most cases of diplegia and paraplegia are congenital, while most cases of hæmiplegia are acquired after birth.

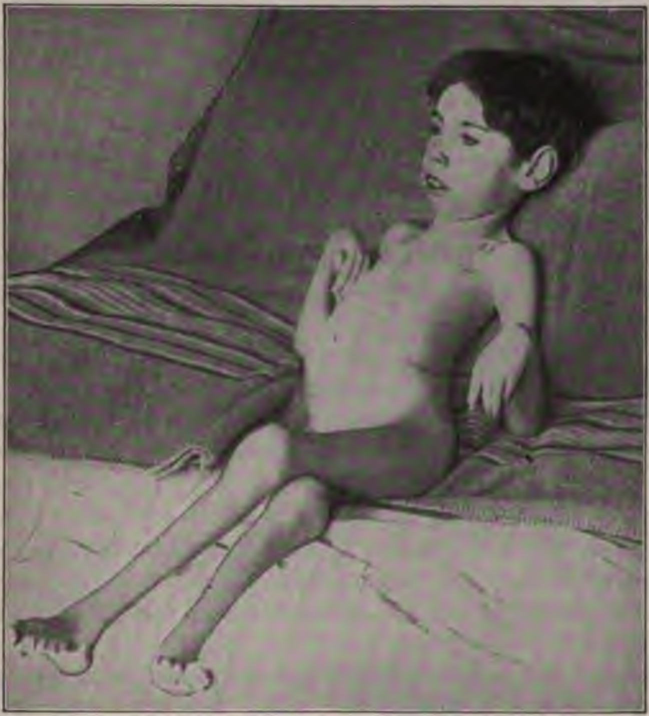


Fig. 271.—Infantile Cerebral Paralysis. (Kindness of Dr. A. C. Cotton.)

Palsies usually follow a difficult labor. Strabismus and facial paralysis are frequently noticed. Aphasia may be present in children that had previously learned to talk. The reflexes on the affected side, knee and elbow, are usually exaggerated (Peterson, Taylor, and Wells).

When athetosis is found, it is usually associated with imbecility and idiocy.

In associated movements the exact imitation of the paralyzed hand

and fingers of voluntary movements made by the normal hand and fingers takes place. Choreiform movements, called by Weir Mitchell post-paralytic chorea, are frequently mistaken for chorea. Peterson[1] describes two congenital hæmiplegias—a hitherto unnoted morbid movement to which he has given the name *post-hæmiplegic polymyoclonus.* The movements are neither choreiform nor athetoid, but are constant clonic contractions of most of the muscles in the limbs affected, not occurring synchronously, and the rhythm being about that of paralysis agitans (five per second). All of these movements indicate interference with motor conduction due to lesions in some part of the voluntary and inhibitory tracts.

The following schedule of symptoms by Jacobi is useful in showing the diagnostic features of the different palsies:—

Upper Extremity.—Deltoid: Absence of deformity, which is averted by weight of arm. Inability to raise arm. Sometimes subluxation. Frequent association with paralysis of biceps, brachialis anticus, and supinator longus.

Lower Extremity.—Ilio-psoas: Rare except with total paralysis. Associated with paralysis sartorius. Loss of flexion of thigh. Limb extended (if glutei intact).

Glutei.—Thigh adducted. Outward rotation lost. Lordosis on standing. Frequent association with paralysis of extensors of back.

Quadriceps Extensor.—Flexion and adduction of leg (if hamstrings intact). Loss of extension of leg. Frequent association with paralysis of tibialis anticus.

Tibialis Anticus.—Often concealed if extensor communis intact. If both paralyzed, then fall of point of foot in equinus. Dragging point of foot on ground in walking. Big toe in dorsal flexion (if extensor pollicis intact). The tendons prominent. Hollow sole of foot (if peroneus longus intact).

Extensor Communis.—Nearly always associated with that of tibialis anticus. Toes in forced flexion.

Peroneus Longus.—Sole of foot flattened. Point turned inward. Internal border elevated.

Sural Muscles.—Heel depressed. Foot in dorsal flexion (calcaneus). Sole hollowed if peroneus longus intact; flattened if paralyzed. Point turned outward (calcaneo-valgus).

Extensors of Back.—Lordosis on standing. Projection backward of shoulders. Plumb-line falls behind sacrum (unilateral). Trunk curved to side. Trunk cannot be moved toward paralyzed side.

Abdominal Muscles. — Lordosis without projecting backward of shoulders.

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[1] Starr. American Text-book Diseases of Children, p. 652.

Rigidity and contractures are striking symptoms in almost all these palsies, and for this reason they often fall into the hands of the orthopædic surgeons, who are besought to remedy the rigidly-flexed elbows, wrists, knees, and the various deformities that interfere with locomotion. Adductor spasm in the thighs, causing cross-legged progression, is nearly constant in diplegia and paraplegia. Talipes equino-varus is the most frequent pedal deformity in hæmiplegia. Rarely talipes equinus and talipes equino-valgus are to be found in hæmiplegia. While rigidity with contracture is the rule in all of these forms of infantile cerebral palsy, occasionally, but very seldom, cases will be met with in which the muscles are all completely flaccid. The chief *trophic disturbance* encountered in these cases is retardation in growth of the paralyzed member. The paralyzed limbs do grow, but at a much slower rate than the sound extremities. Hence the disproportion is often very striking. The earlier the onset of the palsy, the greater is this disproportion. Another peculiarity noted is that the growth of the whole organism is to a certain extent interfered with, the injury to the brain seeming to stunt development and to prevent the patient attaining his normal stature. The patients are more or less undersized and dwarfed. Peterson describes a case in which the mother brought to him her two boys, twins, 6 years of age, for the examination of the one affected. One was a tall, well-built lad; the hæmiplegic boy was small-bodied and fully seven inches shorter than his healthy brother. In all of these cases the muscles of the paralyzed and undeveloped extremities react normally to the faradic current. There is no reaction of degeneration. In many cases the affected limbs may be blue and cold, as in paralysis of the spinal type. A very rare phenomenon in these cases is a hypertrophy of the muscles, usually combined with athetosis.

Asymmetry of face and skull have been observed. Peterson and E. D. Fisher have called attention to the flattening of the skull on the side opposite the paralysis in infantile spastic hæmiplegia.

Differential Diagnosis.—From infantile spinal paralysis we can differentiate, by the presence of the exaggerated reflexes, the rigidity and normal reaction of the muscles. In cerebral palsy there is no actual atrophy in the limbs. When the central neuron is involved, the inhibitory influence over reflex manifestation is lost; consequently there is an increased reflex. When the peripheral neuron is involved, the circuit being broken, the reflex is lost. There are no marked trophic changes.

Prognosis and Course.—In diplegia and paraplegia due to intra-uterine or birth[1] lesions they rarely reach the third year. As a rule they die of marasmus in infancy. In hæmiplegia the prognosis is better. In most cases the paralysis may improve and the brain may not be seriously impaired. If epilepsy appears in later life, we may suspect a previous infantile paralysis.

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[1] **See article on "Erb's Paralysis or Birth Palsy in the New-born Baby."**

The palsy affecting the face and the leg can usually be improved. Speech will also gradually return if improvement is noted. The late appearance of epilepsy must not be forgotten. Sometimes the paralysis is present a year or more before the onset of the epilepsy (Peterson).

Treatment.—If convulsions are present, the inhalation of chloroform or laughing gas is indicated. Anti-spasmodics, such as bromide of potassium or bromide of sodium, with or without chloral hydrate, can be given. General attention to the stomach and bowels—and dietetic management is certainly indicated. Iodide of sodium is also indicated. Counter-irritants cause excitement and sometimes do harm. J. Madison Taylor advises against the use of counter-irritants. Electricity combined with massage is useful. The faradic interrupted current will do good by stimulating the muscles. The current should be used daily; besides careful massage (muscle kneading), passive movements are of great importance. This form of exercise should be resorted to and more *good can be done* by this form of treatment than by all medication. We must not expect the bodily functions to return to normal until we have strengthened the body with restorative treatment, combined with fresh air, and by all means light nutritious food.

Some cases will not yield to medicinal treatment, and here surgical procedure has been advised. Neither trephining nor craniectomy have been successful. Allen Starr reports in a recent paper that in fifty cases operated, in these and allied conditions, the results were not encouraging.

A child 3 years old was brought to my clinic at the New York Post-graduate Medical School and Hospital in 1894. It was suffering with backward development and had distinct evidences of cerebral palsy. There was a diplegic paralysis. The head was microcephalic. As nothing could be done by general routine treatment, it was decided to try surgical treatment. A craniectomy was performed by Dr. Seneca D. Powell. The child died.

Two other cases known to me have been operated, and the surgical treatment in each has been disappointing.

PLEUROPLEGIA (MÖBIUS'SCHE KERNSCHWUND).

This is a congenital condition caused by a combination of abducens, facial, and hypoglossal paralysis.

This condition is caused by nuclear defects, and the partial palsies are evidently due to lack of intra-uterine development. The following case illustrates this condition:—

C. M. G., born May 4, 1898, was referred to me for diagnosis by Dr. Henry A. Bernstein.

Family History.—It is the first child. The mother has had two miscarriages since the birth of this child. The parents are not related by birth. Syphilis can be positively excluded.

Child's History.—She was breast-fed for three months; later received bottle feeding. When five months old it was noticed that the infant could not support its head. Dentition began at seven and one-half months. Did not walk until the third year. Had measles and also diarrhœa about this time and ceased walking, but began to walk again during the fifth year. Talking began when 5 years old. Could not connect words until 6 years old. Is inclined to constipation. Adenoids were removed when 3 years old.

St. pr.—Now 7 years old. The heart sounds are clear and normal, although heart action is slow (bradycardia). The head moves normally. There is a funnel-shaped depression of the thorax, also a spinal curvature, pendulous belly, carious teeth, besides other symptoms of rickets. *The nasolabial folds are totally absent. There is an absence of expression—no difference in laughing or crying.* The saliva flows out of the mouth. The eyes do not close during sleep (lagophthalmus). The iris disappears under the lids in attempting to close them. There is an absence of the secretion of tears. No fibrillary contractions of the tongue are visible. The uvula is in the median line just as in the normal child.

Treatment.—Restorative treatment consisting of proteid food and general hygienic treatment to improve the rachitis was ordered.

Codliver-oil and phosphorus may be tried, as also large doses of iodide of sodium. Faradic electricity is indicated.

PSEUDOHYPERTROPHIC PARALYSIS (MUSCULAR PSEUDOHYPERTROPHY).

We are indebted to Duchenne for an accurate clinical description of this condition.

Etiology.—This disease is usually found in children between the second and eighth years. It is more frequently observed in males than in females. There is no distinct cause of this disease.

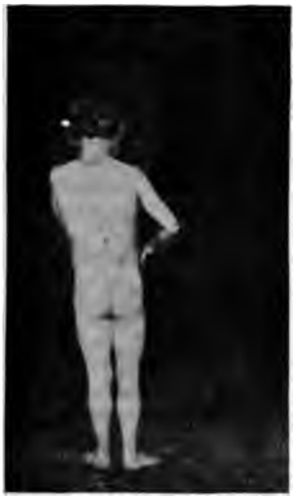

Fig. 272.—Pseudohypertrophic Paralysis.

I am indebted to Dr. Dexter Ashley for the above illustration.

Pathology.—The pathological lesions noted are a fatty infiltration of the muscles, changes in the breadth and contour of the muscular fibers, and an increase in the intermuscular connective tissue.

Symptoms.—Motor-weakness is usually the first thing noticed. A child apparently in good health will complain of inability to walk. At the same time there will be an enlargement of certain groups of muscles. In cases seen by me the muscles of the calves were almost as large as those of the thighs. Stewart has reported cases in which the calves of the child were as large as those of an adult. The muscles most frequently affected are the deltoids, biceps, triceps, latissimus dorsi, and sterno-mastoids.

51

Duchenne has found all of the muscles of the body hypertrophied. After the hypertrophy disappears it is succeeded by an atrophic condition. There is less muscular irritability with faradic and galvanic currents. The patellar reflex is usually absent as the disease progresses.

CASE I.—A. L., 6 years old, boy. As a baby the mother noted that there was something the matter. Walked at 2 years of age. Child was very fat, and had a good appetite at that time. Now eats but little.

Walks very erect, in soldier-like position, almost suggesting Pott's disease. Steps slowly. On table, first noted apparently strong muscular development of the back. Muscles of back, thigh, calves, apparently well-developed. Child rises from the floor with characteristic movements. Flat-footed. Cannot get up without rolling over, when reclining on back. Child looks to be in good health. Father says he is constantly growing weaker, slowly. Came to me for diagnosis, not having previously known the nature of the condition.

CASE II.—Jacob S., was first seen by me when 12 years old. Walking became impaired at the age of 6 years, gradually getting worse, so that to-day he cannot walk at all. The reflexes are absent. Sensation is impaired. The spinal muscles in dorsal region are atrophied. Gastrocnemii markedly increased in size. The extreme difficulty of rising from a sitting position is very characteristic. (Fig. 270). The loss of power in arms is quite marked also. A history of diphtheria is given just prior to the onset.

Dr. L. S. Manson kindly referred this case to me.

Prognosis. The prognosis as a rule is bad.

Treatment.---The treatment consists in restoratives. Massage may be tried. Such a case should always be sent to a neurologist to outline the future course of treatment.

FACIAL PARALYSIS IN THE NEW-BORN.

This condition is most frequently seen in the new-born after the use of the forceps. It is a peripheral paralysis resulting from traumatism. It is the result of pressure on the nerve near the exit through the stylo-mastoid foramen or where the facial nerve crosses the ramus of the jaw. The parotid gland gives little protection in the new-born. The paralysis is most frequently unilateral, as usually only one blade of the forceps causes injury.

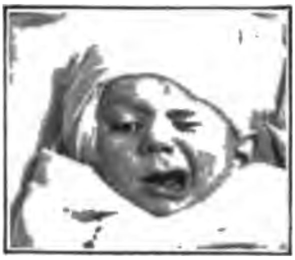

Fig. 273.—Facial Paralysis following Mastoid Operation. (Original.)

FACIAL PARALYSIS (BELL'S PARALYSIS).

This is frequently called post-operative palsy. This disease may follow mastoid operation. It may also follow retropharyngeal abscess (Bokai).

The disease is sometimes associated with tumor in the cerebellum.

Prognosis and Course.—Great care should be exercised in expressing

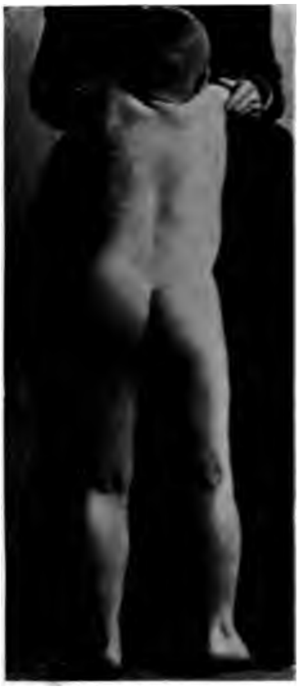

Fig. 274.

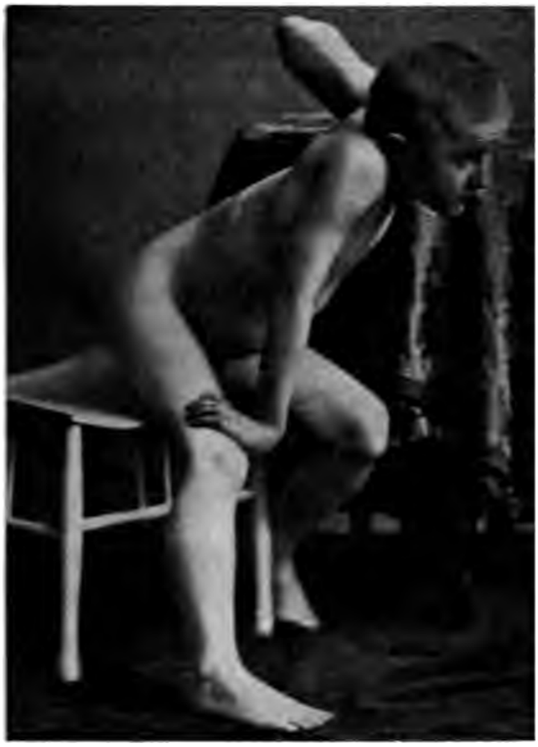

Fig. 275.

PSEUDOHYPERTROPHIC PARALYSIS.

Fig. 274.—Note hypertrophic condition of the muscles of the legs. Cannot stand without strong support. (Original.)

Fig. 275.—Attempting to rise from chair. Compare atrophy of muscles of arms and spine with hypertrophy of muscles of legs. (Original.)

Fig. 276.—Attempting to rise from floor. Can raise the body no higher. (Original.)

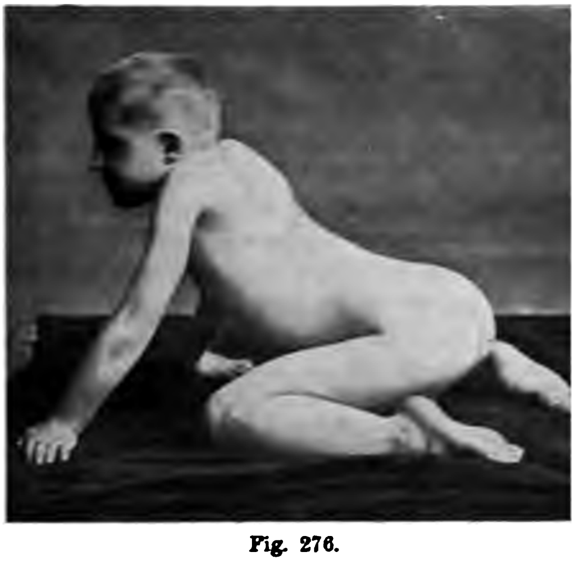

Fig. 276.

an opinion as to the outcome of a case of facial palsy. In one case seen by me after a mastoid operation a permanent palsy remained. I saw the case four years after the operation.

Treatment.—This depends on the cause. Restorative treatment aided by massage and electricity should be tried. Unless some improvement is noted within a few weeks the outcome of the case will be serious.

ABSCESS OF THE BRAIN (CEREBRAL ABSCESS).

This condition is occasionally seen in children.

Etiology.—There are two principal causes of this condition: first, traumatism—injury to the head by a blow or a fall, resulting in fracture of the skull or in abscess; second, from an extension of middle-ear abscess into the mastoid cells, so that an abscess of the cerebellum results. The infection is carried through the veins or usually along the lateral sinuses to the cerebellum. Wagner reported a case of cerebral abscess in which thrush was believed to be the cause.

The white substance of the brain is usually affected in this suppurative process. It is rarely seen in children under 1 year of age, but more frequently between the ages of 1 and 10 years. Out of 223 cases reported by Gower, 24 occurred between the ages of 1 and 9 years. Körner's statistics show that out of 77 cases of brain abscess, 25 were secondary to ear disease.

In 38 out of 40 cases, according to Körner, the bone itself is diseased.

Pathology.—Meyer reports a case of abscess which occupied an entire hemisphere. The pus found is usually greenish-yellow. At times the abscess may be encysted, in which case it is surrounded by a pyogenic membrane. Lalemand reports a case of abscess of the brain in which there was an escape of pus through the auditory meatus. "The most frequent seat of the abscess is, first, the temporo-sphenoidal lobe; secondly, the cerebellum; thirdly, the frontal lobes. Other locations are very rare. Abscesses are usually single. In size they vary from that of a cherry to an orange."

"Abscess of the brain, as well as meningitis and sinus-thrombosis secondary to otitis, begin, as a rule, at a point corresponding to that at which the inner surface of the bone is attached. The roof of the tympanum enters into the middle fossa, and the bony partition is sometimes as thin as writing-paper; it is for this reason that disease of the middle ear most often causes abscess in the temporo-sphenoidal lobe which lies on the fossa.

The mastoid cells are separated from the posterior fossa by a thin layer of bone, and hence abscess, secondary to disease in that region, is often situated in the cerebellum. The extension of the disease to the brain is due to thrombosis extending from the diseased bone, or from the ear, through the veins which pierce the roof of the tympanum; only rarely is there a direct communication by a suppurating tract. In common with other forms of intracranial inflammation due to ear disease, abscesses occur more often on the right than on the left side."

Symptoms.—If the child is old enough to complain, there will be headaches described over the affected area. Fever usually accompanies this condition. The temperature may rise to 104° or 105° F. in the beginning, although cases are reported where the temperature remains normal. Vomiting usually accompanies this condition. At times in young children there are convulsions, coma, opisthotonos, and all symptoms pointing to a meningitis. When distinct areas are affected, such as the motor areas, then paralysis of the extremities may take place. Optic neuritis is sometimes present. A choked disc can sometimes be made out by an ophthalmoscopic examination. If the bones of the cranium are thin then there is usually marked tenderness over the region of the abscess.

A foundling, eleven months old, was in a fair condition when first seen by the foster parents, who later adopted him. This infant subsequently developed sore eyes and still later had several bruises on the scalp which suppurated. In addition thereto he was emaciated and showed the evidence of both neglect and improper feeding. The infant with proper feeding and hygienic care developed into a bright healthy boy. He attended school and seemed in good health until his seventh year, when he showed signs of trouble with his head. Dr. W. B. Chapin, who attended him, suspected caries of the bones back of the ear.

Dr. W. Freudenthal was called in consultation with Dr. Chapin to see the swelling behind the ear, which had developed during the previous eight weeks. The swelling was about the size of a large cherry, there was no pain on palpation and no spasmodic contractions. The swelling was located on the side of the head corresponding to the upper lobe of the ear. It was not reddened and fluctuated on palpation. Examination of the ear showed no pathological condition. The drum membrane was normal. There was no tenderness over the mastoid.

After waiting some time it was thought advisable to open the abscess. The abscess was opened by Dr. Freudenthal with general anæsthesia. Necrotic tissue was found, but the mastoid was intact, and it was impossible to probe the mastoid cells; however it was found that a small probe penetrated in the direction of the frontal lobe to the depth of 3 $^1/_4$ inches. Pus oozed from this opening. As this was evidently a case of cerebral abscess, the wound was dressed and the further operative procedures left to a surgeon. The temperature ranged between 99° and 104$^1/_2$° F. The abscess was on the right side of the head. Convulsions occurred on the left side of the body. Dr. A. Gerster was called in and diagnosed the case as a cerebral abscess. On the following morning an operation was performed. To be sure that the mastoid was not involved, part of the mastoid was opened. It was found normal. Two ounces of pus were evacuated from the abscess. The case ended fatally.

Diagnosis.—This is usually made when suppuration of the middle ear existed prior to this attack. If opisthotonos, symptoms of coma, convulsions, high fever, or vomiting follow an attack of acute or sub-acute otitis, then an extension of the suppurative process *should be suspected*. At times the diagnosis will tax the ingenuity of the most expert aurist.

Prognosis.—This is always grave. Our only chance for saving life is to resort to an early operation.

Treatment.—The earlier surgical relief is instituted, the better will be the result. The medicinal treatment consists in relieving symptoms such as fever by means of an ice coil, and by active catharsis. Relieve the nervous symptoms with the aid of large doses of bromide and chloral. Complete details of brain surgery are given by M. Allan Starr in his book on "Brain Surgery."

ALALIA IDIOPATHICA[1] (BACKWARDNESS IN SPEAKING).

When a child is in good health and does not learn how to speak, careful examination is necessary. In such cases it is important to exclude idiocy. Although some children do not speak before they are 2 or 3 years old, their general habits and mannerisms will easily show whether or no we are dealing with mental disease.

The prognosis is excellent, although frequently parents will be very anxious and worried regarding the outcome.

Treatment.—Persistent teaching will usually remedy this condition.

IDIOCY AND IMBECILITY.

In idiocy we have a congenital absence of mentality and intelligence.

In imbecility we have an arrested development or a partial arrest of development.

Etiology.—According to Shuttleworth prolonged labor without instrumental interference is the cause of idiocy in 29 per cent. of cases admitted to his asylum. Down states that of 2000 idiots examined by him there were symptoms of suspected inanition at birth in 20 per cent. This writer also states that disturbance of the mother's physical condition during pregnancy resulted in mentally deficient offspring in about 20 per cent. Griesinger states that "violent shock and grief during pregnancy appear not to be without influence as a cause of idiocy." Consanguinity is a much disputed point. Some authors believe that blood relations invariably have mentally deficient offspring. Other equally observant writers hold the opposite view. I have seen a case of idiocy in which the father and mother were first cousins. Children of intemperate parents, and children of syphilitic and tubercular parents are frequently found to be mentally deficient.

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[1] Read also, "Very Late Speaking," Part I, page 3.

Shuttleworth, a well-recognized English authority in this field, gives the following classification of idiocy:—

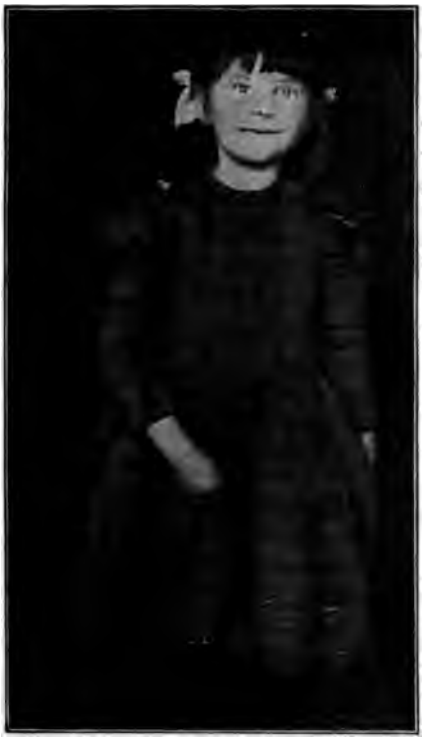


Fig. 277—Congenital Idiocy (Lillie B.). Age 6 years. Delicate until 4 years of age. Did not walk until the fourth year. Mother cannot tell when difference in the two sides was first noted. There were no convulsions. The head measured 19 inches. There were strabismus, and deformed jaws. The mouth was constantly open. Right hemiplegia, more marked in upper extremity. Walks and runs around, but drags right foot. Contracture and spasticity present. Expression idiotic. Has never talked. Intelligence *nil*. Is restless and in nearly constant motion. (Case of Dr. A. C. Cotton.)

TABLE No. 79.

CLASS A—CONGENITAL.

1. Microcephalic.
2. Hydrocephalic (also non-congenital).
3. Scrofulous. "Mongol type."
4. Sensorial (also non-congenital).
5. Primarily neurotic.
6. Paralytic (also non-congenital).
7. Choreic (also non-congenital).
8. Cretinoid: (*a*) sporadic, (*b*) endemic.

CLASS B—NON-CONGENITAL.

(a) Developmental.

9. Eclamptic.
10. Epileptic.
11. Syphilitic.
12. Post-febrile (also *accidental*).

(b) Accidental or Acquired.

13. Toxic.
14. Traumatic.
15. Emotional.
16. From mixed causes.

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—Great care must be taken in differentiating between backwardness and idiocy. A child that is backward in development does not remain stationary in development, but progresses *very slowly in comparison* with children of the same age; for example, a backward child of 5 or 6 years will show the mental development of a child but 2 or 3 years old. In such a case we deal with a slow mental progress, whereas an idiot shows a distinct arrest of development, both of body and mind.

Down describes Mongolian idiocy in the following language: "The hair is not black as in the real Mongol, but of a brownish color, straight and scanty; the face is flat and broad, and destitute of prominence: the cheeks rounded and extended laterally; the eyes obliquely placed, and the internal canthi more than normally distant from one another (the epicanthic fold often abnormally large); the palpebral fissure very narrow;

the forehead wrinkled transversely, from the constant assistance which the levatores palpebrarum derive from the occipito-frontalis muscle in the opening of the eye; the lips large and thick, with transverse fissures; the tongue long, thick, and much roughened; the nose small; the skin has a slightly dirty, yellowish tinge, and is deficient in elasticity, giving the appearance of being too large for the body.

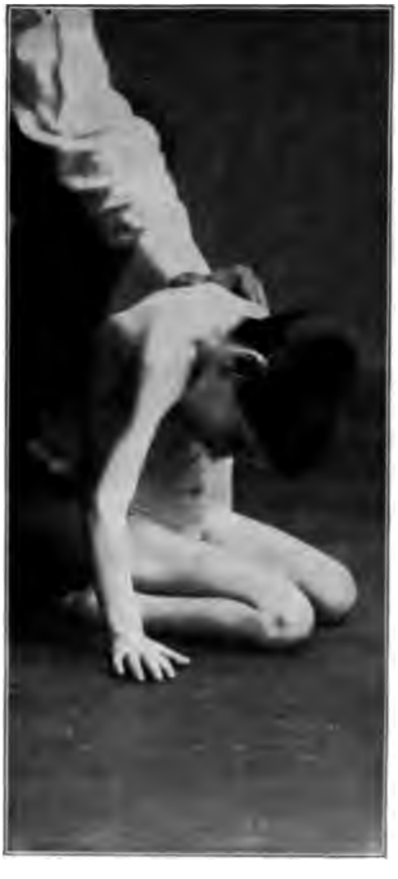


Fig. 278.—Imbecile (Louie W.). Showing anterior curve of the spine and general atrophy of all the muscles, especially those of the back and shoulders. (Original.)

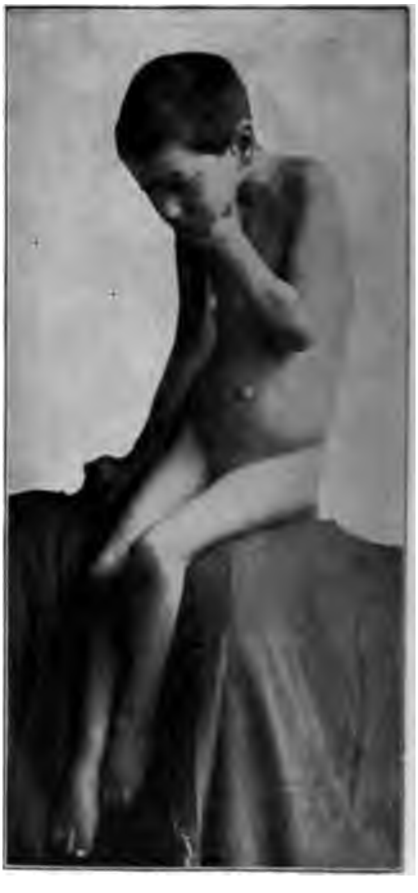


Fig. 279.—Imbecile (Louie W.). Showing normal position of head flexed on the chest. Can only lift head by raising chin with extensor muscles of hand and forearm. (Original.)

"This type occurs in more than 10 per cent. of cases; they are always congenital idiots; they have considerable power of imitation; they are humorous; they are usually able to speak, the co-ordinating faculty is abnormal; the circulation is feeble; the improvement which training effects is greatly in excess of what would be predicated if one did not know the characteristics of this type; the life-expectancy is, however, far below the average, and the tendency is to tuberculosis."

These children are usually found to be deaf, blind, or to have some deformity of the mouth, nose, hands, or feet. I have seen cases of this kind in my service at the German Poliklinik, of New York, and also remember seeing this form of disease at the Children's Klinik of Dr. Hugo Neumann, at Berlin. This disease usually ends fatally.

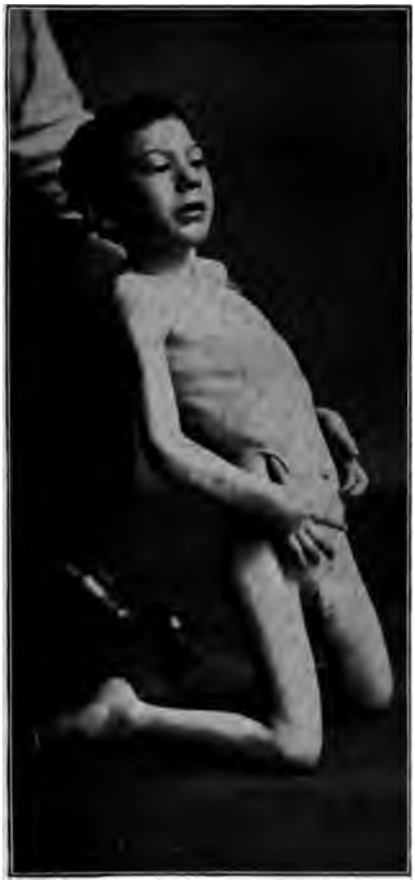


Fig. 280.—Imbecile (Louie W.). Showing position assumed in walking. Cannot stand on feet. (Original.)

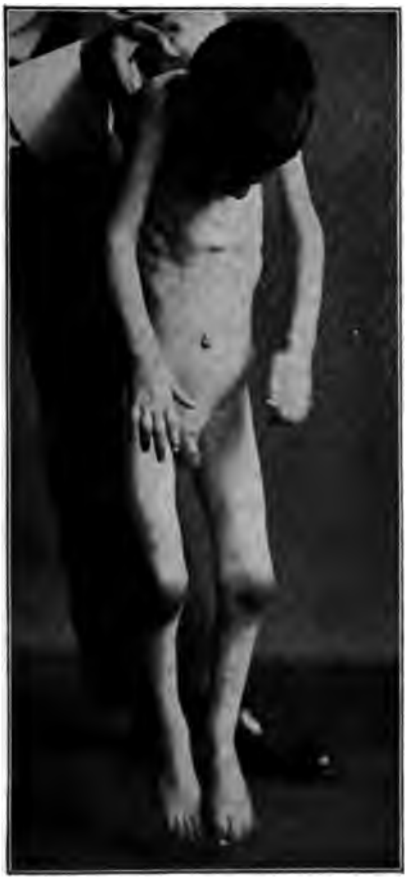


Fig. 281.—Imbecile (Louie W.). Showing drop wrist and foot. (Original.)

I allude to infantile amaurotic idiocy on page 810. Other forms of mental impairment are described in detail (see article on "Sporadic Cretinism," page 719).

An Imbecile Having Microcephaly and Pseudo-muscular Atrophy.—Louis W., 5 years old, was referred to me through the courtesy of Dr. L. S. Manson.

Previous History.—This child was born at full term, natural labor, no forceps. He was breast-fed about 15 months; could not stand, walk nor talk until 2 years old. Dentition began during the ninth month, which was very early in this family, as all the other children teethed at fifteen months. He had measles when 2 years old, influenza and pneumonia when 3 years old. The boy has an unusually small skull, 16 inches in circumference; the normal circumference at this age is about 21 inches.

Family History.—The mother had been married twice, had six children with the first husband and five with the second. Three children died of scarlet fever. The rest of the children are strong and healthy. There is no family history of idiocy or nervous disease on either father's or mother's side.

The mother first noticed trouble when the child was 2 years old, when he began to go about on his knees, having never walked on his feet. He has no power in the hands or feet; speaks very little, voice tremulous. Tic of small muscles of chin; knee-jerk both present. There is great muscular weakness of the lower extremities and muscles of the back. There was drop-wrist and foot and universal wasting of the muscular system without marked trophic changes. Normal position of head is that of flexion on chest and can only lift head by raising chin with extensor muscles of hand and forearm. Fibrillary twitching of all the muscles in hands not amounting to athetosis.

INFANTILE AMAUROTIC FAMILY IDIOCY.

This peculiar condition has attracted considerable attention in recent years. In 1881 Tay, of England, described a case of symmetrical changes in the macula lutea. The child could not sit erect and was backward mentally. John Claiborne, reviewing this subject in 1900, refers to the above case, and says:—

"At the first examination the optic disc was normal, but at the macula there was a white, more or less round area, in the center of which was a brown spot. The picture was similar to that seen in embolism of the central artery of the retina. Tay at first thought it was a congenital change. Five months later he noticed the optic disc was atrophied. Three months later he observed 3 other cases in the same family. In all the ophthalmoscopic picture was the same, and all these persons died before the end of the second year of the disease. During the years 1885 and 1886 the same ophthalmoscopic picture was described by Magnus, Knapp, and others. In 1887 Sachs reported a case which impressed him as being one of idiocy; this was particularly interesting on account of the changes observed in the cortical cells. The family character of the affection was suggested to him after observing 4 cases in two families. Kingden, of England, published a case and showed a picture which eye surgeons said belonged to the disease which Sachs had elucidated. In 1898 Sachs reviewed the subject, tabulating 29 cases."

A. Jacobi reported 3 cases of this form of idiocy to the American Pediatric Society in 1898.

Pathology.—Sachs states that the external configuration of the brain exhibits a distinct picture of a lower order of development. It is difficult to state whether the changes were to be regarded as primary degenerations or due to an arrest in development.

Symptoms and Diagnosis.—There is "a milky-blue or white optic disc with bright cherry-red center occupying the place of the macula lutea." Nystagmus is frequently present. Hydrocephalus has been reported associated with this condition. The weakness of the extremities increases slowly until diplegia appears. In such cases the optic symptoms and idiocy are pronounced, and from these two conditions alone, the diagnosis can be made. The voluntary muscles are relaxed, especially those of the abdomen. Death usually comes at the end of the second or third year, although the disease may last years. The child is totally blind.

Treatment.—No treatment has as yet modified or benefited these children.

CONCUSSION OF THE BRAIN.

We frequently see children who have fallen down a flight of stairs, or with apparently as severe symptoms, that will recover. The following case illustrates concussion of a *mild type* which recovered:—

CASE I.—A boy, 7 years old, rolled down a flight of stairs. I saw him about one hour after his fall. There was nausea and vomiting. Some slight abrasions of the skin were present, and a scalp wound one inch in length which required a stitch. The temperature was 100° F. The boy was put to bed. I saw him about twelve hours later. He was perfectly normal and complained of intense hunger. On the following day the boy was apparently well.

CASE II.—*Severe Concussion of the Brain.*—Child S. was seen by me through the courtesy of Dr. E. D. Lederman, with the following history: He was in his fourth year, bottle-fed during infancy, and excepting an occasional attack of dyspepsia, had always enjoyed good health.

Present Condition.—Three days before I saw him he fell and struck his head violently on the pavement. Six hours later, severe vomiting set in. During the night following the fall he was feverish and moaned continually. On the following day when Dr. Lederman saw him the temperature was 103° F. The child seemed to be dazed and in a stupor at times. He was very thirsty. There were marked evidences of clonic and tonic spasms in the muscles of the body. A laxative was ordered. The gastro-intestinal tract was cleaned and an ice-bag applied to the head. These same symptoms continued, the fever rose to 105° F. and was not easily reduced. When I saw him in consultation with Dr. Lederman there were spastic conditions of the muscles of the arms and legs. There was marked rigidity of the spine. The sterno-cleido-mastoid muscles were rigid. There was marked opisthotonos. Severe photophobia. The pupils were dilated and did not respond to a strong light. The Babinski reflex was present on the right side, but not so positive on the left side. When moved about the child moaned as though in pain. A tache cérébrale was also present. The diagnosis of concussion and traumatic basilar meningitis was made. A lumbar puncture was made and almost one-half ounce of turbid (milky) cerebrospinal fluid was withdrawn. The child passed urine involuntarily (evidently due to bladder paralysis). The case ended fatally.

PART X.

DISEASES OF THE EAR, EYE, SKIN, AND ABNORMAL GROWTHS.

CHAPTER I.

DISEASES OF THE EAR.

ACUTE CATARRHAL OTITIS MEDIA.

ACUTE catarrhal otitis media arises in the great majority of cases from extension of an inflammatory process by way of the Eustachian tube.

Etiology.—Burkens found 104 deaths in 33,107 ear cases, and Randall 15 in 5000, giving a percentage of three-tenths of 1 per cent. from intracranial disease.

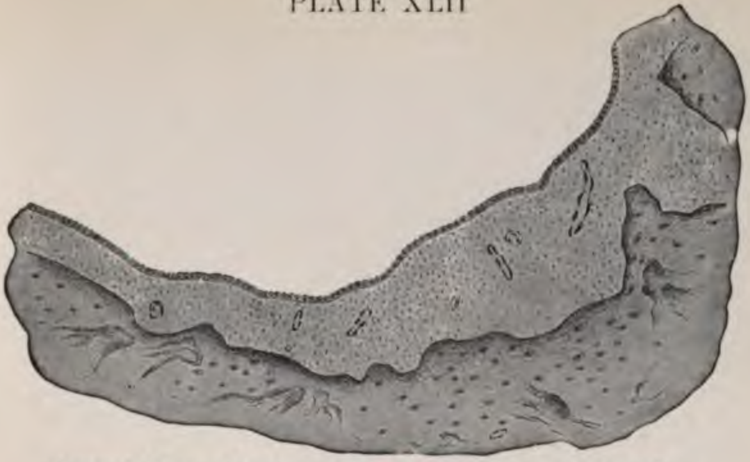
Schwartz records 30 deaths in 8425 ear cases, or 0.35 per cent. The death rate from purulent ear diseases, compared with all other diseases treated, was shown in Guy's Hospital, in London, some years ago, to be 57 deaths among 9000, two-thirds of 1 per cent; 40,073 autopsies in the Vienna General Hospital showed 232 deaths from otitic complications, *i.e.*, 0.58 per cent. The majority of these deaths occurred in the course of chronic suppuration of the middle ear, complications in the acute stage, with the exception of mastoiditis, being less frequent.

Naso-pharyngeal disease, especially the infectious diseases, such as measles, scarlet fever, influenza, and diphtheria, are frequently followed by otitis. The ease with which pathogenic bacteria can cause an inflammatory extension from the nose into the Eustachian tube is now recognized. Children of the lymphatic and rachitic types are more susceptible to these infections.

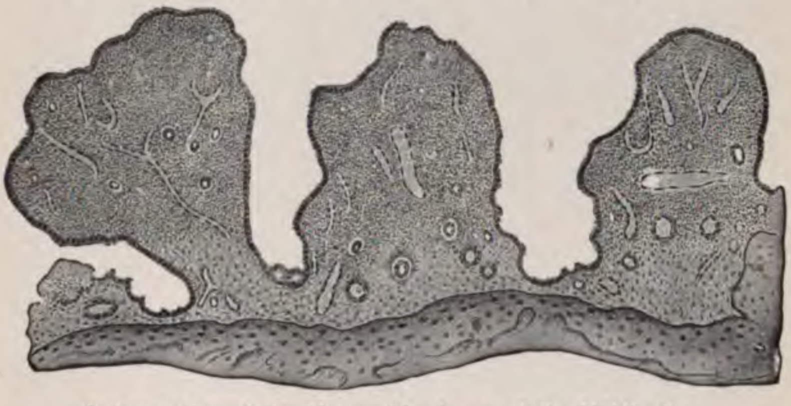
When a catarrhal process limits its attack to the lower portion of the middle ear chamber, the disease may run its course without becoming purulent. When, however, the upper part or tympanic attic is involved, we are more apt to find that the infection assumes a suppurative type. It is in this class of cases that complications arise and extension to the mastoid cells by way of the aditus soon follows.

Bacteriology.—Observers have found that even in the normal tympanic cavity, pathogenic bacteria exist. Consequently any deviation from the normal process in this region predisposes the individual to a purulent infection. A passive congestion of the tympanic mucous membrane due to

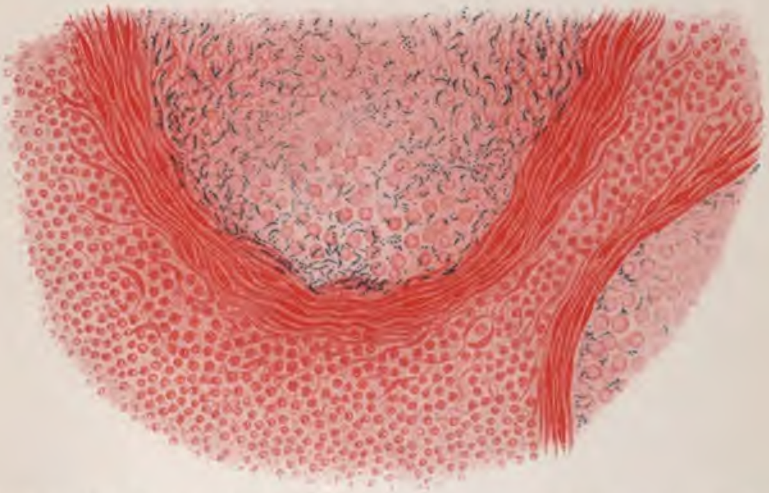
PLATE XLII



Normal Mucous Membrane of the Middle Ear in the New-born.



Inflammation of the Mucous Membrane of the Middle Ear.
Section of infiltration with polypoid excrescences.



Section of the Vessel of the Mucous Membrane Containing Streptococcus Pyogenes. (After S. Weiss.)

cardiac, renal, naso, or naso-pharyngeal disease, must be considered a potent factor in the production of a suppurative otitis. Staphylococci, diplococci, and streptococci have been found in the naso-pharyngeal space, and it is reasonable to suppose that these micro-organisms are apt to find their way into the Eustachian tube and tympanitic cavity even under normal conditions.

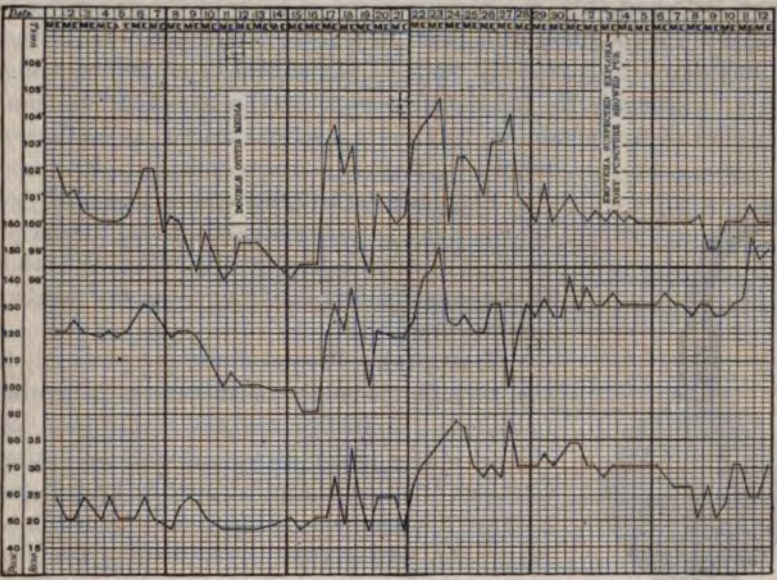


Fig. 282.—**Complication of Scarlet Fever seen in my service at Riverside Hospital.** (Original.)

A study of this case, in which both ears were discharging, is interesting. The temperature was only 99 $^{2}/_{5}$° F. in the rectum. This proves that we must always be on the lookout for suppuration of the middle ear in the acute infectious diseases.

Pathology.—We must bear in mind that the ossicular chain is surrounded or enveloped by folds of mucous membrane, and when this tissue becomes engorged drainage from the attic is difficult. Consequently our incisions through the upper and posterior portion of the membrane in acute otitis should be deliberate and somewhat heroic, otherwise we will not accomplish the object in view, *i.e.*, drainage from that portion of the middle ear which is most likely to be followed by disease of the mastoid antrum and cells.

Symptoms.—Two prominent symptoms are always present; one is pain and the other fever. The infant is usually very restless, rolling the head from side to side on the pillow and rubbing the hand over the affected should then be used, which not only answers the purpose of its name, but also stops the oozing. The parts should be separated with the auricle held forward so that the posterior and superior walls of the auditory canal and the whole field of operation is exposed to view.

If the bone is bathed in pus this is wiped away and any perforation is examined with a probe. The opening is enlarged, either with a spoon or rongeur. Should no perforation or sinus exist, then the antrum should be opened either with a flat chisel or gouge and a mallet. The suprameatal triangle is above the antrum. This is made by drawing one line horizontally with the superior border of the auditory canal, a second vertical one with the posterior, and a base line corresponding with the curvilinear line between these points.

The chisel should be used gently and tangential, and the bone chipped away in small sections, always working downward, forward, and inward. A probe should be used to determine from time to time whether the antrum has been entered, and also to examine the cavity made.

As soon as an opening has been made, a rongeur should be used to enlarge it, and then thoroughly cleaned out with a Volkman's spoon. The space leading from the antrum to the roof of the tympanum, that is, the aditus and attic, should be carefully cleaned out with a small curette. The antrum should then be carefully extended backward until the lateral sinus is exposed and inspected as to whether its appearance is healthy. Its presence can be determined by its bluish appearance and the soft feel to the probe. All granulations and soft tissue having been cleaned out, the parts are gently irrigated with a bichloride solution of 1 to 5000, normal salt solution, saturated solution of boric acid, or sterile water if considered necessary. The wound is then wiped dry, the upper and lower ends can be stitched together, and the rest packed somewhat lightly with iodoform gauze. Bury this gauze; that is, do not let it project; then over this draw the parts together and apply layers of sterile gauze, absorbent cotton, and a bandage.

After-treatment.—Unless pain or a rise in temperature occurs, it is frequently not necessary to change the dressing for five or six days. Usually there is no discharge in the auditory canal; if there is, it is gently irrigated or wiped out. For the mastoid wound, a dry wiping is all that is necessary usually, and a dressing of sterile gauze used lightly packed. This can be changed every two or three days. Granulation tissue of course must be cauterized.

Accidents During the Operation.—*Wounding the lateral sinus* may cause a profuse hæmorrhage. If the bony cortex has been sufficiently removed, the sinus may be plugged with iodoform gauze and the operation completed. The sinus whenever exposed should be kept covered with iodoform gauze separate from the rest of the cavity to prevent infection. If the vessel should not be sufficiently freed from the bony covering, the bleeding may prevent the completion of the operation.

Exposure of the Dura.—If carefully dealt with, this is not a matter of much importance, if the part is kept covered with iodoform gauze independent of the rest of the wound. If the dura should be wounded it should be opened, cleaned, and sewed up with fine catgut sutures.

Facial Paralysis.—In operating, this condition can be prevented by not interfering with the lower two-thirds of the posterior wall of the auditory canal and the facial nerve will escape injury. Where it has been slightly injured, the function of the nerve is usually restored within four to six weeks.

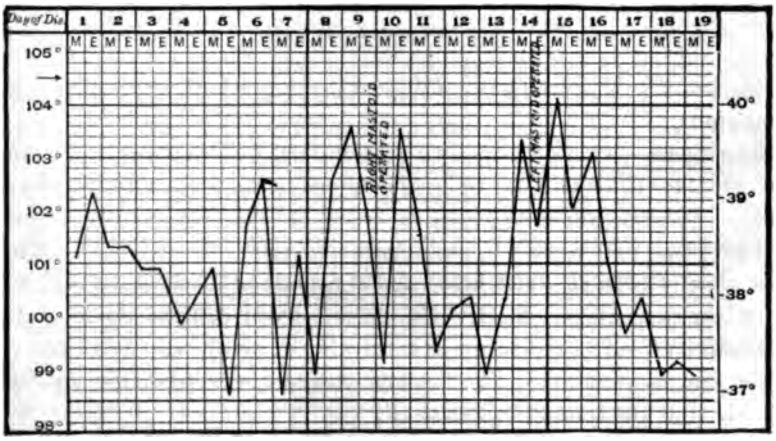


Fig. 284.—A Common Type of Acute Mastoid Inflammation Following Influenza. There was a double otitis before the extension to the mastoid cells. Note the fever curve following the operations. Case recovered. (Original.)

Francis M. C., 1 year old, suffered with gastric disturbance, poor appetite and symptoms resembling colic. His bowels moved sluggishly, the stool was greenish and contained mucus and undigested particles of casein. He emaciated owing to the non-assimilation of food. From the history I learned, that the child has had fever accompanied by catarrh of the nose and a general bronchitis for the last four weeks. The examination of the body showed a decidedly rachitic thorax and distended abdomen; retarded dentition and general backwardness in development. There was no evidence of pulmonary disease. The heart-sounds were feeble and a hæmic murmur was distinctly heard at the apex of the heart and also in the vessels of the neck. The child perspired very freely. The temperature was 102.4° F., pulse 140, respiration 28. The throat showed enlarged tonsils and also adenoid vegetations. This latter condition was reported by Dr. Charles D. Manson. Both ears were discharging. The child was very restless, moaned and fretted continually and did not sleep at night. My diagnosis was influenza, subacute gastric catarrh, rachitis, and mastoid involvement. Dr. Edward Dench saw this case at my request and corroborated the diagnosis. The temperature rose to 103.6° F. The right mastoid was opened by Dr. Dench at the New York Ear and Eye Infirmary. The temperature came down by lysis to normal. Three days later, while the child was doing quite well, the temperature again rose to 103.6° F. A left mastoid was suspected, and accordingly the second operation was performed. On the day following the operation the temperature rose to 104.2° F., and an acute milk infection was suspected. With the aid of mist. rhei et sodii and a diet of whey only, at intervals of three or four hours, the stomach symptoms subsided, and four days later the child was removed from the hospital to its home in a normal condition. With careful asepsis both wounds healed. The child gained in weight and within one month had entirely recovered.

SINUS THROMBOSIS.

Mastoiditis is occasionally followed by a secondary infection of the lateral sinus.

Symptoms.—There is usually a sudden rise in the temperature, ranging from 100° to 105° or 106° F. The temperature rises rapidly and falls rapidly. Unusual variations will be noted in the temperature so that it will drop from 106° to 98° F. and again rise to its former height. Bacteremia is usually present. The blood shows a marked leucocytosis and a high polynuclear percentage. In doubtful cases a blood culture should be taken.

Treatment.—The treatment is surgical. In many cases resection of the jugular vein is necessary. The outcome of the case depends on the vitality of the child at the time of operation.

Serum Treatment.—When we are dealing with a pneumococcus infection, an injection of antipneumococcus serum, 30 to 50 cubic centimeters, may do good. If no benefit follows, repeat the injection in twenty-four hours.

The serum is indicated if resistance is low with a correspondingly low leucocyte count in the early stages of the disease.

FOREIGN BODIES IN THE EAR.

Insects, bugs, cotton, beads, and pieces of pencils are frequently found in the meatus. When beans or peas remain they swell and cause painful pressure symptoms. The specialist should invariably be consulted rather than risk the danger of traumatism in unsuccessful attempts at removal. If a live insect or bug is in the middle ear, pour water, oil, or alcohol into the ear. If the insect is not dislodged by this means try Allen's foreign-body forceps.

CHAPTER II.

DISEASES OF THE EYE.[1]

ACUTE CATARRHAL CONJUNCTIVITIS.

THIS condition is usually associated with infectious diseases. As a rule it is found in coryza, the acute exanthemata, influenza, and the usual infections due to pathogenic bacteria in the atmosphere.

General Plan of Cleaning the Eye when Secretion Exists.—The eyes should be thoroughly cleansed with a pledget of cotton dipped in lukewarm water. Then use a drop or two of a solution of cocaine:—

℞ Cocaine hydrochlorate	10 grains
Salicylic acid	1/2 grain
Distilled water	1 ounce

M. Drop into the eye 3 times a day.

After instilling the cocaine, a few drops of a 2 per cent. argyrol solution should be dropped on the eyelid. The irritating secretions should be wiped away as frequently as possible. A weak solution of bichloride of mercury, 1 to 5000, applied on cotton, will best serve to cleanse the eye. It should be used at a temperature of 100° F., hourly if necessary.

A solution of borax:—

℞ Biborate of soda	4 parts
Distilled water	100 parts

Or:—

℞ Argyrol	1 part
Distilled water	100 parts

are very good cleansing remedies.

Peroxide of hydrogen,[2] one-half strength, is recommended by Stephenson, to be used three times a day.

Atropia is simply mentioned to be condemned. Protargol and largin stain the conjunctiva and are useless. To prevent the lids from gluing together the yellow oxide of mercury ointment should be applied two or three times a day:—

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[1] The correction of Errors of Refraction, such as astigmatism by means of eye-glasses, and the treatment of strabismus, should only be undertaken by the specialist. The reader is referred to special works on Diseases of the Eye for particulars regarding these conditions.

[2] A good preparation on the market is called dioxygen.

℞ Yellow oxide of mercury (5 per cent.)	1 part
Vaseline	10 parts
Lanoline	10 parts

PINK EYE.

This form of acute ophthalmia is similar to the one just described. It is very communicable and most probably transmits infection by a specific organism.

Weeks[1] was the first to describe a definite micro-organism causing this disease. The Weeks bacillüs is short and has rounded ends. It stains very easily with methylene blue. It is intensely contagious and spreads rapidly, especially in schools. Children under fifteen years are especially susceptible.

The diplo-bacillus of Morax was described by him in June, 1896, in the Annal de l'Institut Pasteur. The inflammation is frequently due to the presence of the diplo-bacilli. The inflammation usually begins in one eye and infects the other a few days later. Its course may be either chronic or acute.

PNEUMOCOCCUS OPHTHALMIA.

This disease is frequently seen in new-born children in which the lachrymal sac suffers.

Grifford[2] described an epidemic in Omaha where several distinct outbreaks took place within a few years.

Veasey[3] states that the pneumococcus is the most frequent cause of ophthalmia in Philadelphia. The bacteriological examinations of the organisms are very easily made. A cover glass smeared with the pus, stains well with methylene blue. Under the microscope there are diplococci, cocci, and chains devoid of capsule.

Infection of the conjunctiva sometimes occurs. This is frequently the result of impetigo contagiosa of the face or scalp. Infected secretions transmitted to the eye by the fingers usually set up this inflammation. Little girls frequently transmit vaginal discharges on their fingers and thus cause infection. The common cocci of suppuration, namely, staphylococcus pyogenes aureus, albus, and citreus, are usually found in this discharge.

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[1] Archives of Ophthalmology, 1886, No. 4, p. 441.

[2] Grifford: Archives of Ophthalmology, vol. xxv, 1896, p. 314.

[3] Veasey: Archives of Ophthalmology, vol. xxxviii, 1899, p. 301.

Treatment.—Clean the eye by dipping small pledgets of absorbent cotton into lukewarm water, or dip the cotton into a 2 per cent. solution of borax. A medicine dropper can be filled three or four times with a solution of:—

℞ Formalin[1] .... 1 to 2000

Sig.: Wash or bathe the eye with this formalin solution every four hours.

Very hot water applied on pledgets of sterilized cheese-cloth will reduce the inflammation of the lids. In other cases, cold lead and opium wash will be very soothing and have a similar effect. We can prevent the lids from sticking together by applying vaseline at night.

PURULENT OPHTHALMIA (OPHTHALMIA NEONATORUM).

This is a purulent conjunctivitis of the new-born infant. It may be seen several hours, or sometimes appears several days, after birth. The amount of pus secreted is very large. When the lids are separated pus will be liberated.

Etiology.—It is usually caused by an infection in the maternal passages containing the gonococcus during labor. The pneumococcus has also been found in some cases. These pathogenic bacteria are carried directly into the eye, either by the secretions or by means of infected sponges or towels. Bacteriology has proven that all causes excepting distinct germ infection must be eradicated.

Symptoms.—The lids appear red and swollen. The upper lid frequently overhangs the lower and the infant is unable to open the eyes. Stephenson states that 10 per cent. of children so affected remain totally blind. Of 446 cases of ophthalmia occurring in the practice of seven physicians quoted by Stephenson, gonococci was found in 72.83 per cent. In Stephenson's own cases, out of 45 affected, 30 showed evidence of the gonococci, or 66.5 per cent.

Preventive Treatment.—The Credé method is now universally used. As soon as the infant is born and the face wiped clean, the following solution is dropped into the eye:—

℞ Nitrate of silver solution............................. 2 per cent.

Sig.: It is best to let it fall from a medicine dropper on the eyeball. A slight inflammatory reaction is occasionally seen and if treated with a cold solution of formalin, 1 to 2000, disappears quickly.

MEMBRANOUS CONJUNCTIVITIS (DIPHTHERITIC CONJUNCTIVITIS).

We occasionally see membranous patches on the surface of the conjunctiva. This membranous deposit is sometimes distinctly diphtheritic, a culture taken showing the presence of the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus. To differentiate clinically between the diphtheritic and non-diphtheritic type is sometimes impossible. I have seen membranous conjunctivitis at the Willard Parker Hospital in which the disease clinically resembled diphtheria and still the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus was absent. In one case seen by me the streptococcus alone was present. The clinical history of the case is an important guide in the diagnosis. If another case of diphtheria exists at the same time in the same house, the question of transmission should have weight in making the diagnosis. Every case of membranous conjunctivitis requires a careful inspection of the fauces. If croupous laryngitis is present, then a greater probability of diphtheria is warranted.

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[1] Formalin is a 45 per cent. solution of formaldehyde. Formaldehyde itself is a gas and a strong escharotic.

Symptoms.—A grayish-yellow patch can be seen on the conjunctiva. The lids are very tender and swollen. They feel hard and thick on palpation, and cannot be everted. Ulceration or sphacelation of the cornea usually follows. The same systemic disturbances may be noted as are found in diphtheria affecting the throat. There is usually fever, glandular enlargement, loss of appetite, general prostration, and cardiac disturbances, as has been described in the chapter on "Diphtheria."

Prognosis.—A very guarded prognosis is necessary, as the outcome of the case depends upon the care bestowed and the time when the case was first seen. If the disease has been established a long time, a greater destructive tendency must be presumed than if the case was seen when it first originated.

Treatment.—First isolate. The communicable nature of this disease must be remembered. The family and friends should be warned of the danger.

Local Treatment.—If the eyes are thick and swollen, an ice-bag or ice-cold pledgets of cotton soaked in bichloride, 1 to 2000, should be applied. They should be renewed every five to ten minutes night and day, to produce a good result. In other cases warm, moist applications will alleviate pain and also reduce inflammation.

Specific Treatment.—Diphtheria is diphtheria whether it is in the eye or in the throat, hence an injection of 5000 units of antitoxin should be given regardless of the age of the child. The same internal treatment which is described in the chapter on "Diphtheria" is recommended if we desire successful results in these cases.

GRANULAR OPHTHALMIA (TRACHOMA).

The characteristic feature lies in the development on the palpebral conjunctiva of the so-called "sago grains."

Granular lids must be carefully considered owing to their disastrous tendency.

The following table, slightly modified from Stephenson ("Epidemic Ophthalmia," 1895) gives the differential diagnosis between folliculosis of the conjunctiva and trachoma:—

TABLE No. 80.

FALSE OR FOLLICULAR GRANULATION.	TRACHOMA.
1. Oval or roundish transparent bodies the diameter of which never exceeds from 1 millimeter to $1\frac{1}{2}$ millimeters. Of a faint yellowish hue, arranged in rows parallel to the lid border, and discrete. Most marked in inferior retrotarsal fold.	1. Round, opaque, ill-defined bodies, of grayish-white color and extreme friability. Firmly and deeply embedded in the conjunctiva, their diameter not infrequently reaches 2 millimeters or more. Tendency to become confluent and form masses or areas of trachomatous material. Most numerous and larger in upper retrotarsal fold.
2. Little or no change in the structure of the conjunctiva.	2. Structural changes always present.
3. Papillary hypertrophy of upper lid slight.	3. Marked hypertrophied papillæ of upper lid generally present.
4. Tarsus never implicated.	4. Tarsus often involved.
5. Disappear spontaneously generally and leave no scar.	5. Spontaneous cure may occur, but only by cicatrization, which may be slight or extensive according to the amount of tissue involved.
6. No ptosis.	6. Ptosis nearly always present in some degree.
7. No pannus.	7. Keratitis in the form of pannus or ulcer in about 25 per cent. of the cases.
8. No trichiasis, entropion, or cicatricial contraction of the cul-de-sac.	8. Frequently leads to trichiasis, entropion, or shrinking of the cul-de-sac.
9. Most frequent in persons under 20 years.	9. May occur at any age.
10. Non-contagious.	10. Conditionally contagious.

This disease may frequently assume an epidemic nature. During the last two years hundreds of cases have suddenly appeared in our city. The ease with which all infectious diseases spread in the congested portions of our city applies to trachoma. For this reason school-children and inmates of institutions and hospitals should have the eyes carefully inspected on admission to exclude trachoma. In our country the native American Indian suffers from this disease, so do the Irish, Polish, Italians, and the Teutonic races. It is therefore quite probable that this disease is spread more or less among all races. One race is exempt, namely, the negro.

Treatment.—Of all methods, *expression* is the method generally used. The morbid tissue is thereby dislodged and removed. Actual cauterization, galvano-cautery, or the solid nitrate of silver stick is mentioned by some, but should be used only by those familiar with the eye. The advice that I give in my office to patients suffering with trachoma, is to recommend them to an eye specialist.

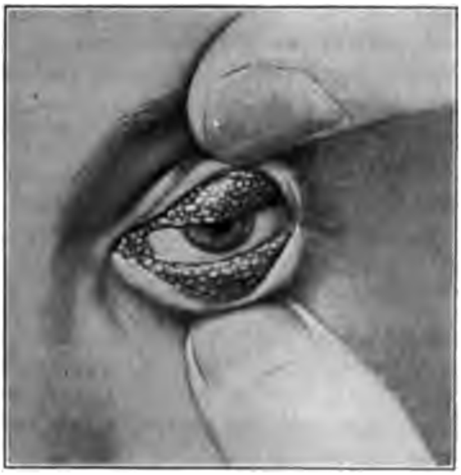

Fig. 285.—Trachoma, Showing Round, Opaque Bodies in Upper and Lower Lids. "Sago grain" type. From a photograph—frequent type seen in children. (Original.)

BLEPHARITIS.

This disease is characterized by a sub-acute or chronic inflammation along the margin of the lids.

Two classes of cases might be noted. *First*, those in which slight crusts appear on the edges which, when cleared off, show no loss of substance; simply reddened margin. This would include the cases of marginal eczema, so called. *Second*, those cases which, when cleared of crusts, show ulceration.

The first class of cases seek treatment for cosmetic results. There is no pain, only a slight discomfort exists. These cases are all aggravated by exposure to dust, wind, heat, or long spells of work.

The second class of cases is more serious. At first they present a dusky margin and gluing together of eyelashes, due to excessive secretion, which gradually progresses. Beneath the crusts ulcers form. Excoriations and pustules about the hair follicles interfere with the growth, so that the lashes fall out or become stunted. The vascularity continues, increasing the thickness of the lids with new connective tissue. The gradual contraction of this new scar tissue leads to eversion of the lids with resulting epiphora, or overflow of tears, presenting a disagreeable, raw-looking surface.

Treatment.—Generally speaking, the treatment consists of removing the crusts or scabs by any warm alkaline lotion, such as bicarbonate of soda, or biborate of soda, 10 to 20 grains; aquæ, 1 ounce. Massage of the lids with red or yellow oxide or white precipitate, 2 to 8 grains; vaseline, 1 ounce, should follow.

A mild ointment should be used—a strong one increases the irritation. All refractive errors must be corrected. Epilation of the lashes sometimes promotes a cure when commenced in the early stages of the disease. The general condition of the patient must be looked after, and iron, arsenic, codliver-oil, or similar tonics and hygienic treatment as indicated should be prescribed.

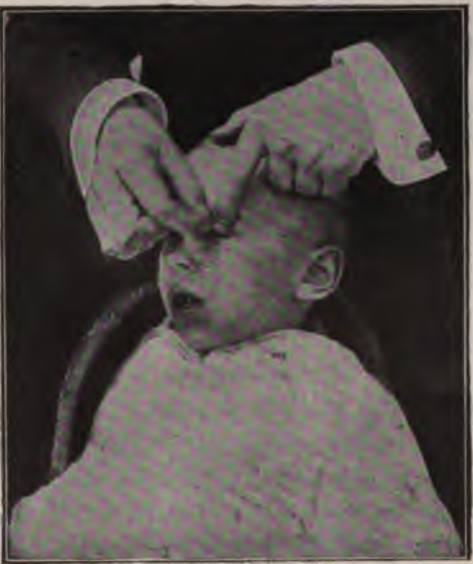

Fig. 286.—Method of Everting Eyelid. (After Davis and Douglass.)

HORDEOLUM, OR STYE.

This disease is characterized by an inflammation of the connective tissue about a hair follicle along the lid margin. A hard, circumscribed, inflammatory nodule forms, which may suppurate. Occasionally, it remains as a hard lump, and still in other cases the lid becomes swollen and œdematous. A close examination, however, will show the inflammatory spot, which as soon as it appears yellowish should be incised and the pus evacuated.

Treatment.—The general treatment consists in hot applications to favor resolution. To prevent successive crops, the massaging of the lids with an ointment of hydrarg. ox. flav., $^1/_2$ to 2 grains; vaseline, 2 drachms, has an excellent effect. The infection from the pus may be prevented by the use of argyrol in a 5 per cent. solution, one drop two or three times daily.

These successive styes show some disease of the lid margin, as blepharitis, some derangement of the general system, or eye-strain, especially in hypermetropia.

PHLYCTENULAR CONJUNCTIVITIS.

This affection is one of childhood and is seen in malnutrition after the acute exanthemata; also in marasmic or scrofulous children.

Small elevated spots, papules, or pustules the size of a mustard seed are found in this condition. When the epithelial covering is shed they become superficial ulcers. They are either single or multiple, and appear as pinkish, yellowish, or grayish spots. There is very often a great dread of light—photophobia—which leads to spasms of the lids—blepharospasm. There are also at times pain, burning sensation, and lachrymation.

Treatment.—*Local treatment* consists of bathing with a saturated solution of boric acid. If any excoriation exists at outer canthus, touching it with nitrate of silver generally effects a cure.

If the symptoms show that the condition is subacute or chronic then stimulating applications are required, as:—

℞ Hydrarg. ox flav.	4 to 8 grains
Vaseline	1 ounce

M. and apply three times a day.

I have had excellent results by touching the affected parts lightly with a solid stick of alum or copper.

If there is much corneal involvement:

℞ Atropin sulph.	½ grain
Aq. dest.	2 drachms

Sig.: One drop in the eye once or twice daily may have to be used.

For the blepharospasm, a forced opening of the lids, an occasional drop of a 2 per cent. solution of cocaine, or a sudden plunging of the head in cold water will relieve the condition.

General Treatment.—This consists in the hygienic care of the child and tonic treatment. The eyes should be kept clean and open, dark glasses should be worn if necessary. No dark room, bandages, or eye shields should be allowed. The bowels should be regulated. The diet should be looked into. All sweets interdicted, meat given occasionally, and milk foods ordered. Give plenty of fresh air, outdoor exercise, and bathing. Tonics, such as codliver-oil, syr. ferri iodide, strychnine, etc., should be given.

CHAPTER III.

DISEASES OF THE SKIN.

ECZEMA.

THIS eruptive disease is very frequently seen in infants as well as in older children.

Etiology.—Irritation, be it an irritant soap or an irritant discharge, can give rise to eczema. Eczema is frequently an external manifestation of toxic conditions. The frequency with which eczema is seen in children with dyspeptic conditions certainly invites consideration. Children having rickets are frequent sufferers with eczema. Some authors believe that *pathogenic bacteria can enter the skin and set up eczema.* While this appears plausible, it remains to be proven. It is found associated with deficient elimination from the skin in the unclean, in dyspeptic conditions when the stomach and bowels are not properly functionating, and also when the kidneys do not properly act. I have frequently seen children with a facial eczema which appeared when oatmeal was given and disappeared when the same was stopped. Eczema may be due to reflex irritation. Holt says that cases which accompany dentition and those due to genital irritation can be called reflex.

This disease can be either *localized (regional)*, as when it is confined to the face or between the thighs, or it can be *general* or *universal.*

Symptoms.—There is always an intense itching or burning with the appearance of the eczema. On the cheeks it usually begins with "small red papules, later these coalesce and there is a moist red surface exuding serum or sero-pus." Children scratch and thus usually produce bloody streaks. The crusts have a yellowish-brown appearance. There is a redness, thickening, and always scaliness of the skin. The glands in the immediate neighborhood are usually swollen; they rarely lead to suppuration.

Eczema frequently spreads from the face to the forehead and the neck, and I have seen it involve the whole head.

Infant G. S., seven months old, was nursed about six weeks at his mother's breast. He was then fed on top milk and barley water. As this disagreed he was given barley water. He then had dyspeptic, greenish stools, and the feeding was changed to milk and rice water, which seemed to agree quite well. He gained steadily one-half pound every week for the next three months. He was at the seashore all summer and had no evidence of summer complaint. When seven months old he was slightly constipated and with it had dyspeptic fermentation. His appetite was poor. It was necessary to stimulate the bowels to produce proper evacuations.

Teething appeared at about the eighth month. At the same time the child had a severe attack of influenza of the gastric type, with high fever, anorexia, and gastro-intestinal atony. At this time a scaly and papular eczema appeared on one cheek and rapidly spread to both cheeks. With the application of a bland ointment consisting of zinc oxide and vaseline it disappeared. One week later I again saw this child with a relapse of high fever and dyspeptic symptoms, and a severe eczema covering an area larger than before. It was very red and angry looking and weeping in character. A gauze mask saturated with calamine and zinc lotion (3 per cent.) produced a marked improvement, besides relieving the itching. Internally I gave rhubarb and soda tablets in addition to cutting down the quantity of milk one-half of the previous strength. After three weeks of this form of treatment I was able to return to the former full milk feeding and the eczema did not return.

CALAMINE LOTION.

℞ Pulv. calamini	2 parts
Pulv. zinci ox.	2 parts
Glycerini	1 part
Aq. calcis	30 parts

Treatment.—Another cooling and antipyretic lotion that has served me very well is the following:—

℞ Phenol	20 drops
Zinc oxid	3 drachms
Calamine	2 drachms
Glycerine	4 drachms
Liq. plumbi subacet. dil.	1 ounce
Lime water q. s. ad	6 ounces

The following are suggested:—

℞ Zinc oxide	2 drachms
Amyl	2 drachms
Naphthalan	1 ounce

Apply at night. (Dr. John Fordyce.)

UNNA'S SOFT ZINC PASTE.

℞ Ol. lini,	
Aq. calcis,	
Zinci ox.,	
Cretæ	of each, equal parts.

Bland, unirritating applications, such as rice powder, zinc oxide, stearate of zinc, talcum, or cornstarch, are very cooling, and seem to act by absorbing the heat and moisture if any be present.

Bathing in Eczema.—I have frequently found an apparently cured case of eczema break out anew with a red blush and eczematous patches after one ordinary cleansing bath was given. In the acute stages ***water should be omitted.*** Applications of a 5 or 10 per cent. calamine and zinc salve or lotion, as described in the clinical case above given, are very beneficial.

Soap should never be used. When hard crusts cover the surface of the skin and cannot be softened by the ordinary application of salves, the following treatment should be instituted: A bland bath consisting of one pound of oatmeal in a cheese-cloth bag, thoroughly soaked in hot water for at least one-half hour, and enough water added to bathe the eczematous parts. After thorough soaking in this oatmeal bath the calamine and zinc or a 2 per cent. boric acid and vaseline ointment should be applied. *One bath only should be given.* The salve should be applied three times a day for at least one week. Irritating ointments, or those containing tar, should be avoided in the acute condition.

ECZEMA RUBRUM.

The eczematous blush affecting the face may be mistaken for erysipelas. Erysipelas usually occupies a smaller area, generally on the bridge of the nose. High fever usually accompanies erysipelas; this will easily differentiate the condition. The treatment is the same as that outlined in the article on "Eczema."

SALICYLIC-SULPHUR PASTE.

℞ Ac. salicyl.	1 part
Sulph. depur.	5 parts
Petrolati	25 parts
Zinci oxid.	10 parts
Amyli	10 parts

ICHTHYOL OINTMENT.

℞ Ammon. sulph. ichthyolat.	5 parts
Aq. dest.	5 parts
Adeps benzoat.	15 parts
Adeps lanæ	25 parts

CRUSTA LACTA.

To soften the milk crusts which form on the scalp of infants, applications of the following will loosen the crusts, after which they may gently be combed away:—

℞ Olive oil	½ ounce
Castor oil	½ ounce
Salicylic acid	4 per cent.

ECZEMA INTERTRIGO.

In fat children where two opposing surfaces of skin are in contact, such as between the thighs or toes or in the armpits, a red form of inflammation frequently ensues. It is sometimes accompanied by a thin, foul-smelling discharge, which may be serous, but very rarely is purulent. This condition is more apt to be noticed in the unclean.

Treatment.—Remove the cause by separating the parts. Sprinkle freely with talcum, zinc oxide, lycopodium, fullers' earth, or any good infant's powder. In severe cases separate the parts by placing a sterile pad of cheese-cloth on both sides of which zinc salve is smeared. All warm clothing should be avoided. When severe excoriation results from discharges and is not checked by the application of bland salves, then cool lead and opium wash applied for a day or more is soothing and will reduce the inflammation.

When infected conditions occur, apply:—

℞ Hydrarg. ammoniate	10 grains
Lassar's paste	1 ounce

ERYTHEMA.

Local irritation such as might be caused by a mustard plaster or the friction of a dress, producing a "chafe," or irritating secretions, such as a purulent ophthalmia or acrid discharge from the nose, produces this erythema. It is frequently seen in infants on the buttocks from lack of cleanliness. When seen on the buttocks it may be mistaken for syphilis. Erythema is easily differentiated from syphilis by the absence of snuffling of the nose, of the ham-colored eruption, and of the inelastic, cracked appearance of the soles and palms.

URTICARIA (HIVES; NETTLE RASH).

This inflammatory condition of the skin appears very suddenly. No special portion of the body is exempt; thus, it may occur on the face, abdomen, or extremities. It consists of irregular-shaped blotches called *wheals*. When these spots disappear they leave no trace behind. There are several varieties of urticaria.

Urticaria annularis occurs in rings.

Urticaria figurata occurs in spirals.

Urticaria vesiculosa has vesicles on the summit of the wheal.

Urticaria bullosa is a bullous development on summit of wheal.

Urticaria papulosa is a wheal combined with a papule.

Urticaria tuberosa are giant wheals.

Urticaria hæmorrhagica is a combination of urticaria with purpura.

Urticaria pigmentosa is a pigmentation following the wheals.

The form most frequently met with in children is likely due to (*a*) ptomaine poisoning; (*b*) the result of some toxin in the system.

Causes.—Shell-fish, strawberries, and frequently cereals seem to be the cause of urticaria in some children. There is usually some gastric or gastro-intestinal disturbance at the time of the appearance of this rash. There seems to be a peculiar idiosyncrasy in some children to quinine and to other drugs which will bring out an attack of urticaria. A great many children have severe urticaria after an injection of antitoxin. (Read article on "Antitoxin Rashes.") Insect bites will sometimes cause this condition.

Symptoms.—There is severe itching, and scratching will frequently develop a new rash. Fever sometimes accompanies this condition. Urticaria once seen is very easily recognized and is not hard to differentiate.

The prognosis is usually good. We must remember that children prone to idiosyncrasies will have urticaria quite frequently; thus, it will depend on the diet as to whether or no the rash remains away.

Treatment.—The first thing to do is to cleanse the gastro-intestinal tract with one or two teaspoonfuls of castor-oil, followed with 1 drachm of rhubarb and soda every three hours until the stools become loose, and the condition is improved.

Locally.—The severe itching can best be allayed by making a paste of bicarbonate of soda and cold water. Rub this paste into the hives. A cool tub bath, containing several ounces of bicarbonate of soda, will frequently relieve the itching. Evaporating lotions, such as lead and opium wash or a weak solution of vinegar and water, are soothing to some cases. In other cases the following will give relief:—

℞ Resorcin	1 part
Menthol	1 part
Phenol	1 part
Alcohol	200 parts

M. Apply with cotton.

Large quantities of water should be given for thirst. It will also aid in eliminating toxins through the kidneys.

Herpes Zoster (Shingles).

"This is an acute inflammation consisting of a group of vesicles. It is mostly seen over a surface of skin corresponding to a definite nerve tract. It is accompanied by neuralgic pain."

Symptoms.—As a rule, there is a broad band of vesicles corresponding to the affected area, usually following a nerve tract along the limbs or along the borders of the ribs. It develops very rapidly and frequently resembles an erythema. The crop of vesicles is frequently so thick that they almost touch one another.

Prognosis.—As this is a self-limited disease, the prognosis is good, although neuralgic pains may persist for some time after the disappearance of the eruption.

Treatment.—Avoid irritant salves and use cooling dusting powders, such as bismuth, cornstarch, wheat flour, or powdered zinc oxide. The affected part should be covered with linen or gauze, not flannel or wool. To allay intense itching or inflammation use calamine and zinc lotion (see chapter on "Eczema").

CHLOASMA (TINEA VERSICOLOR; LIVER SPOTS).

This is a very mild form of eruption in which brown patches of skin are seen. It is caused by the invasion of a fungus.

Treatment.—The application of white precipitate ointment or 1 per cent. bichloride in alcohol has served me very well in removing the same.

PSORIASIS.

This is a chronic inflammatory disease affecting the extensor surfaces. It consists of a red, scaly patch in which white, silvery scales abound.

Etiology.—There is no specific factor, as it is found in both the rich and poor, although it frequently follows malnutrition of the body such as we see after the acute infectious diseases. This condition also frequently affects children of gouty parentage.

Symptoms.—The extensor surfaces are usually affected; hence the disease will be found on the extensor sides of the arms and legs. The symmetrical arrangement of this eruption on both sides of the body is a characteristic condition.

Prognosis.—This should always be cautiously given. As the disease has a chronic tendency, it may remain for years unless actively treated.

Treatment.—Locally:—

℞ Chrysarobin	2 to 10 per cent.
Petrolatum	1 ounce

or as a varnish

℞ Chrysarobin	2 to 10 per cent.
Liquid gutta percha or traumaticine	1 ounce

℞ Salicylic acid	4 drachms
Chrysarobin	2 scruples

Painted on daily, until reaction follows.

Whenever treatment is given, it must be continued until every spot has disappeared; otherwise the condition will relapse.

The primary infectious agent is the streptococcus; later we have the staphylococcus.

Systemic Treatment.—No one must expect to cure this disease unless the emunctories are properly looked after. We must keep the bowels loose, and the kidneys active. The dairy products should be permitted; also meat, vegetables, and fruit.

Restorative treatment such as codliver-oil, iron, and arsenic should be given liberally. In this disease arsenic proves itself of great value. Arsenic need not be feared and can be given to children in very large doses. Fowler's solution, in 3- to 10- drop doses three times a day, is usually sufficient.

IMPETIGO.

This infectious and contagious disease is characterized by an eruption which may appear on any part of the body. It is most frequently seen on the exposed parts, usually on the face and hands.

Symptoms.—There may or may not be fever at the onset of the eruption. The eruption usually commences on the face and hands. It is easily communicated.

Treatment.—A tub-bath consisting of kali sulphur (one ounce), dissolved in a porcelain or wooden tub full of water. The temperature of this bath should be about 100° F., and the duration of the bath about five minutes. This bath should be repeated every night, before retiring, for one week. If the sulphur bath cannot be used, then apply a 10 per cent. ammoniate mercury ointment rubbed up with zinc oxide.

The following lotion may be applied several times a day:—

℞ Zinc sulphate	3.5	parts
Copper sulphate	1	part
Aqua	100	parts

PEDICULOSIS.

Among the neglected or unclean we frequently see this condition. It is caused by the invasion of a parasite, the pediculus capitis. There is usually an eczematous condition and the adjacent glands are swollen. The habitat of the pediculus is in the hair, but it causes eczematous patches by irritation.

Pediculosis is often complicated with impetigo. It spreads to the face and makes a picture of impetigo. The infection is primarily streptococcus, secondarily staphylococcus.

Treatment.—First, remove the hair, if at all possible; if not, saturate the hair with petroleum, but avoid the scalp. This should be left on five or six hours, after which the scalp and hair should be saturated with equal parts of ether and tincture of delphin to loosen the nits, which can then be removed with a fine comb. The hair should then be thoroughly washed with soap and water.

MILIARIA PAPULOSA (LICHEN TROPICUS; PRICKLY HEAT).

This variety of skin disease is frequently seen in summer. It consists of bright-red papules on the summits of which there are very tiny vesicles; at times pustules may also be seen. The eruption is usually confined to those parts which are warmly clad, so that the abdomen, chest, and the extremities are most frequently covered. Eczema frequently follows this condition, and if severe scratching takes place, local infection ending in furunculosis may occur. The other parts of the body which do not have the eruption usually show extensive perspiration. This eruption comes and goes very quickly. It is frequently mistaken for scarlet fever. The absence of fever, the appearance of the tongue and throat, and the absence of the prodromal symptoms will easily differentiate this condition.

Treatment.—Rhubarb and soda or a dose of calomel at the beginning. If the kidneys are inactive, then 10 to 20 drops of sweet spirits of niter should be given, and repeated two or three times a day. For the intense itching the application of a paste consisting of bicarbonate of soda and water will stop the itching. The body should be made comfortable by removing all warm clothing. A tepid alkaline bath, temperature 70° F.—a bath to which several ounces of bicarbonate of soda have been added—is very grateful and will give quick relief. After the bath, dry the body thoroughly and dust cornstarch or wheat flour with talcum or zinc oxide, and let the child sleep with as little clothing on as possible. If improvement does not follow within twenty-four hours, then the application of the following salve will relieve itching and reduce the inflammation:—

℞ Zinc oxide	1 drachm
Calamine	1 drachm
Cold cream	1 ounce

M. Apply three times a day.

Miliaria Rubra (Strophulus Infantum; Red Gum).

This rash is the result of an irritation due to perspiration. It consists of red papules, sometimes having tiny vesicles. It is usually seen on the cheeks of an infant and always upon the side on which the infant sleeps.

The treatment is the same as that given in the article on "Miliaria Papulosa."

Sudamina.

Sudamina are small, pearly bodies occurring during fever or exhausting diseases. They are usually seen over the sweat ducts. They are easily absorbed and fresh crops take the place of these tiny vesicles.

Lentigo (Freckles).

This is a very common affection of the skin. It is usually seen in children over 5 years of age, and most especially in those having blonde or red hair. The skin is certainly more sensitive to sunlight in such cases, and successive crops of freckles frequently appear after exposure to the light.

The treatment consists in protecting the skin against exposure to the light. The freckles can be removed by a mild form of counter-irritation, such as the application of a 1 per cent. solution of bichloride of mercury. Apply on cotton to the affected area for three or four successive hours. This form of counter-irritation destroys the skin, causing it to desquamate. The new epidermis which appears is free from this pigment.

SEBORRHŒA.

This is a very common condition of thick, dry, crusty formation which occurs on the head of infants. It most frequently involves that region surrounding the anterior fontanel. There are two varieties: (*a*) seborrhœa oleosa; (*b*) seborrhœa sicca. Some authors state that if the vernix caseosa in the new-born is allowed to continue, it passes into a seborrhœa and may eventually become an eczema. When carefully examined, seborrhœa will be found to consist of epithelial cells, fat, and chiefly dirt. There are no inflammatory symptoms. When the scales are removed the skin is usually found normal.

Treatment.—The following is recommended:—

℞	Salicylic acid	15 grains
	Vaselin	1 ounce

M. Rub the scalp thoroughly several times a day and leave on overnight. Wash scalp with soap and warm water the following morning. If necessary repeat several evenings and wash in the morning as above directed. Sulphur soap is useful in this condition. The officinal ointment of sulphur can be rubbed into the scalp if this condition recurs.

FURUNCLE (BOIL).

This inflammatory condition occurs around a hair follicle or a gland of the skin. It is most likely caused by scratching, during which process there is an infection of the follicle with pyogenic bacteria such as staphylococcus pyogenes aureus. Frequently we see boils scattered through the scalp in large crops. At other times they occur singly. A boil begins as a small, red spot in the true skin, very tender, and growing larger and larger. On palpation the center is soft and there is a tendency to suppuration. After suppuration has taken place, and the boil emptied, the swelling subsides. A furuncle has but one point of suppuration, whereas the carbuncle has many. A furuncle is usually a small swelling. A carbuncle very large, frequently several inches in diameter.

Treatment.—Aseptic surgical details are demanded in each and every instance. The scalp should be shaved. The area of the skin involving the furuncle should be washed with carbolated soap and water, and subsequently with water. A free incision should be made, the pus liberated, and the part dressed with sterile gauze. When furuncles recur, then specific results can be obtained by an injection of an autogenous vaccine made from the patient's pus. The staphylococcus pyogenes vaccine can be injected in doses of 500 million daily. No more than five or six injections will be needed to effect a cure. I have also had good results with stock vaccine[1] in injections of 200 million, with an initial dose of 100 million.

Iron, codliver-oil, and other restoratives are indicated. The value of nutritious food must not be overlooked.

CHRONIC PEMPHIGUS.[2]

This frequently follows the acute condition. It resembles the acute disease in producing a succession of crops of bullæ.

The prognosis depends on the condition of the child at the time when it was first attacked. If the infant is underfed, and its vitality lowered thereby, then active restorative treatment should be instituted or the case will be lost.

Treatment.—The blebs should not be ruptured. They should be allowed to dry. The surface of the skin in the immediate neighborhood should be protected by a bland, non-irritating ointment, such as zinc salve or diachylon salve.

Sprinkling powder of zinc oxide, borated talcum, or cornstarch should be used. If the bullæ rupture, the serum should be absorbed with a little cotton and the neighboring parts protected from the excoriating effect of the contents of the ruptured bullæ. Careful attention must be given to the stomach and bowels. If necessary, a mild laxative should be given. The diet should be regulated both as to quantity and quality.

NÆVUS.

There are two kinds of nævus usually seen: (*a*) pigmentary; (*b*) vascular. *Pigmentary* occur as small, rounded stains, which are either yellowish or dark brown. The cutis is raised, thickened, and frequently surrounded with a tuft of hair. They are most commonly seen on the face, neck, and hands.

Vascular nævi may be level with the skin or appear as tumors which project beyond it. The former is due to an excessive development of the capillaries of the skin. Commonly met with, it is of a purplish hue, although it may be brick-red, claret-red, or a livid-blue color. They are most commonly seen on the face and neck.

Treatment.—Blistering or caustics are recommended for the cure of this condition. I have frequently seen marked benefit from linear scarification by the Paquelin cautery. A radical operation should be considered if this milder form of treatment is unsuccessful.

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[1] Furunculosis vaccine or polyvalent staphylococcus vaccine. Parke, Davis & Company.

[2] See article on "Pemphigus Neonatorum."

TINEA TONSURANS (RINGWORM).

This disease is caused by the trichophyton tonsurans. When located on the scalp it is called herpes tonsurans; when on other parts of the body it is known as herpes circinatus.

Microscopical Appearance.—Squire says: "Under the microscope the stump of the hair appears ragged on either of its ends. Instead of breaking with a clean fracture, like healthy hair, the broken ends are digitated. The structure of the hair is greatly altered; its fibers are separated longitudinally, and the intervals filled with the spores of the trichophyton. On the surface of the hair are clusters of the same spores. The magnified piece of hair looks something like a bundle of faggots, with a number of berries sticking in clusters to its sides and ends, and stuffed here and there into its interstices. The spores of the trichophyton are rounded, have a well-defined outline, and measure about $^1/_{5000}$ inch across. In the earlier stages of the disease, when the hair has not yet become so brittle as to make it impossible to extract the root, it can be ascertained that the knob of the hair, as well as its root-sheath, is invaded by the spores of the trichophyton."

The disease commences with more or less itching and redness of some parts of the scalp; sometimes there is swelling. The hair growing on these patches loses its polish, and becomes dull. It is also brittle and easily breaks off near the root. This breaking off of the affected hairs gives the patch the appearance of having been lately shaved. There is a furfuraceous desquamation plainly seen on the scalp. The hair follicles become erect and the patch assumes a goose-skin appearance. The margin of the patch is abruptly defined. There are usually several patches seen on different portions of the scalp. If we attempt to pull out the hair stumps by means of a tweezer, we will note that only a portion of it comes away, leaving the hair root in the skin.

Treatment.—X-ray treatment was introduced by Sabouraud and Noire as a remedy that is promptly curative in ringworm of the scalp. Their method is based upon one measured application of this agent, sufficient to produce depilation, this latter ensuing two or three weeks after exposure, and without producing, at the most, more than the mildest x-ray erythema. Care must be exercised so that the slightest reaction is not exceeded; otherwise there is risk of permanent baldness. It is not a method to be used by those inexperienced in the use of the x-ray.

The essence of the method of Sabouraud and Noire (who use static machines for generating the current) *consists in giving one exposure* sufficiently long to produce depilation, yet not long enough to produce ill effects. This is done by employing some means of measuring the quantity of rays, and by keeping the vacuum of the tube at a point equal to about 3-inch spark gap. Full directions of this treatment can be found in Stelwagon's "Diseases of the Skin," 1910.

The following method is also of value:—

Remove the superficial scales with the tincture of green soap, or by the use, for a day or two, of the pure green soap spread upon a piece of lint. Corrosive sublimate in 1 per cent. solution may be applied once a day, or the tincture of iodine, or carbolic acid in glycerine, 1 to 16, or the white precipitate ointment may be employed. I prefer the chrysarobin collodion painted over the patch every day or every other day. Kaposi's naphthol ointment is recommended by Lassar. Tar or sulphur ointments or Lassar's paste may be employed in obstinate cases.

Morris's thymol-chloroform oil is also beneficial.

MORRIS'S THYMOL-CHLOROFORM OIL.

℞ Thymol	1 part
Chloroformi	4 parts
Ol. olivæ	12 parts

Or:—

SUBLIMATE SPIRIT.

℞ Hydrarg. chlor. corr.	1 part
Spts. vini rect.	500 parts

Or:—

TANNIN-SULPHUR PASTE.

℞ Acidi tannici	5 parts
Lac. sulph.	10 parts
Petrolati	50 parts
Zinci oxidi	17.5 parts
Amyli	17.5 parts

Or:—

CHRYSAROBIN COLLODION.

℞ Chrysarobini	1 part
Collodii flexile	10 parts

VERRUCA (WARTS).

These small tumors of the skin are frequently met with in children. They may resemble a bunch of carrots (verruca digitata) or they may resemble a cauliflower. In size they vary from one-sixteenth to one-eighth of an inch in height. They frequently are seen on the face, neck, and hands. They produce no discomfort and are not serious.

Treatment.—Freeze the parts with ethyl chloride or ether. Pick the wart with a sharp curette. Another painless method consists in cauterizing first with pure carbolic acid, on top of which fuming nitric acid is applied.

In using the latter caustic method, the surrounding parts should be protected with vaseline.

BURNS (COMBUSTIO).

We frequently see burns of various degrees in children.

They are usually caused by hot water, steam, acids, or alkalies.

An intensely inflamed area surrounding a blistered surface is usually found. Pain and sometimes shock are noted. In some cases fever and a rapid increase in the pulse are noted. Violent reaction such as convulsions frequently occur in weak and rachitic children if a severe burn has taken place.

This depends upon the amount of surface involved and on the condition of the child at the time of the accident. Some children survive extensive burns with good care. As a rule a cautious prognosis should be given, owing to the risk of infection and danger of shock.

Treatment.—Strict asepsis should govern the opening of all blisters. Cornstarch, wheat flour, europhen, or dermatol may be used locally. In addition thereto, linseed-oil and lime water, or calamine and zinc lotion (see chapter on "Eczema"), is very valuable.

Air should be excluded by applying an ointment consisting of 10 per cent. ichthyol, 1 per cent. menthol, or ½ per cent. phenol with vaseline. In some cases Fordyce advises the use of 1 per cent. picric acid ointment over which narrow strips of oiled silk are placed to prevent the dressings from adhering. Cover with sterile gauze and bandage.

GANGRENE (SUPERFICIAL GANGRENE).

This condition affecting the skin or extending to the deeper structures is characterized by a bluish-black discoloration resembling a deep form of cyanosis.

Causes.—It is a destructive condition following the acute infectious diseases, especially scarlet fever or measles. Traumatism or pressure interfering with the circulation of the blood or robbing the extremity of its nutrition may result in a destructive gangrene. The following case of traumatic gangrene occurred in my practice; it was a traumatic gangrene due to interference with the circulation:—

Baby A., ten months old, breast- and bottle- fed, was referred to me by Dr. A. Meyer. I found a temperature of 105° F., pulse 180, respiration 60. There was complete consolidation of one lobe of the left side. Bronchial breathing was plainly heard and there was dullness on percussion.

The diagnosis of lobar pneumonia was made. With the aid of cold packs and small doses of strychnine, the child's condition improved. As I left the city, the case was treated by Dr. Khodoff, who gave me the following memoranda:—

"The nurse administered a high rectal enema by suspending the child with a towel around the thighs. The circulation was thereby interfered with. I believe the

thrombosis, which appeared at about the saphenous opening, was of traumatic origin due to this interference of the circulation. The course of the gangrene was as follows: A bluish-purple spot about the size of a ten-cent piece appeared at the saphenous opening. The child previous to this showed indications of pain. It was fretful, tossing about, and very restless. The gangrenous area increased on the following day. It was decided to wait for a line of demarcation, as the child appeared to be in a state of collapse. On the third day after the first sign of gangrene

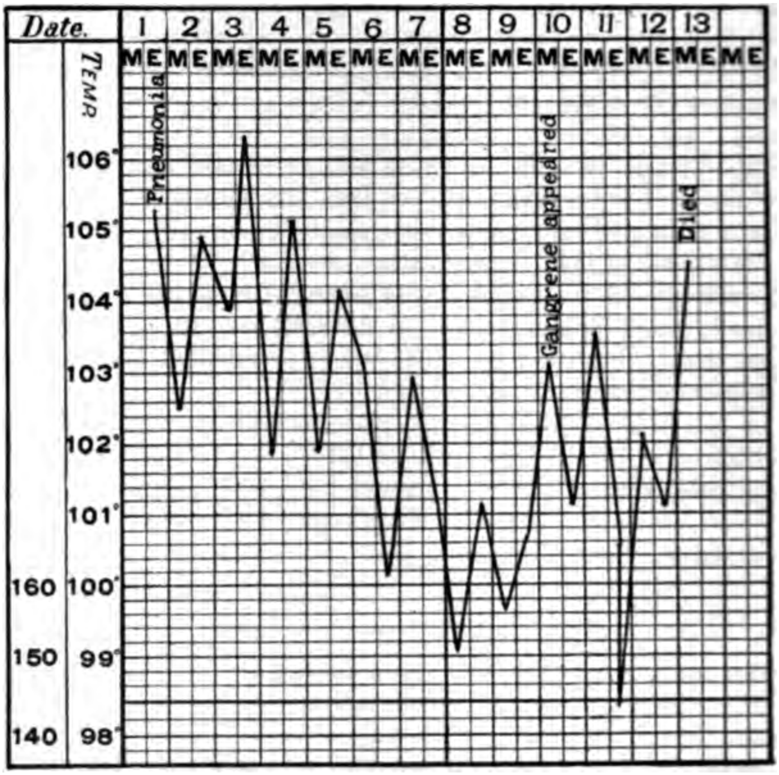

Fig. 287.—Case of Gangrene Following Lobar Pneumonia. Gangrene appeared on the tenth day of disease, due to a careless method of suspending the child by a towel around the thighs, which resulted in thrombosis, ending fatally. (Original.)

appeared, a rapid spreading took place upward along Poupart's ligament and continued above and involved the umbilicus."

When I again saw this case the gangrene involved the whole abdomen. The temperature was 102° F., the pulse very feeble, and the child in a state of collapse. It was necessary to stimulate and feed per rectum. The child died in convulsions.

Prognosis.—The prognosis is always bad, although surgery may be the means of amputating a gangrenous extremity and saving the rest of the body.

Treatment.—There is no medicinal treatment worth trying. Surgical relief is our only hope.

SYMMETRICAL GANGRENE (RAYNAUD'S DISEASE).

This is an obscure condition in which the gangrene is symmetrical.

Etiology.—It is caused, no doubt, by the invasion of pathogenic bacteria. Infectious diseases which devitalize the body are believed to predispose to this condition. Injury and hæmorrhages, such as epistaxis, have been forerunners of this condition.

Symptoms.—When acute there is fever and enlargement of the spleen, hæmaturia, or hæmoglobinuria. The affected part feels cold and appears bluish; sometimes there are vesicles containing a sero-purulent fluid. This condition lasts from two to three weeks, although it may extend over many months. The disease ends in mummification and gradual decay of the affected parts. The toes, fingers, ears, or tip of the nose may be the seat of this affection.

Prognosis.—A cautious prognosis should always be given. While records of cures exist, the diagnosis may always be questioned.

Treatment.—General restorative treatment, concentrated foods, and hygiene should form the basis of treatment. The skill of the surgeon may eradicate the gangrenous parts.

SCABIES.

This is a contagious disease caused by the female acarus burrowing into the skin. The characteristic features of this disease are that it is found between the fingers, in the axillæ, on the flexor surfaces of the wrists, and also around the genitals. The eruption is either a papule or a vesicle, sometimes a pustle. There is an intense itching, and secondary infection results from scratching. Several children in the same family will usually be found so affected.

The prognosis is always good.

Treatment.—A hot bath, to thoroughly soak the body and soften the epithelial scales, should be ordered. An inunction of $^1/_3$ unguentum hydrarg., $^2/_3$ vaseline should follow the bath. Sulphur soap may be used in addition to sulphur ointment if no benefit results from the foregoing treatment.

Epicarin is unirritating and is of value in parasitic affections of the skin. Precip. sulphur sprinkled between the sheets at night affords relief.

An excellent method advised by Fordyce is, first, a cleansing bath, followed by applications of the following:—

℞ **Balsam Peru**	**1 drachm**
Sulphur	**½ drachm**
Betanaphthol	**10 grains**
Petrolatum	**1 ounce**

M. Sig.: Apply on affected areas. Repeat treatment three successive nights.

Strict supervision must be kept up for at least ten days.

CHAPTER IV.

MALIGNANT AND NON-MALIGNANT GROWTHS.[1]

ABNORMAL growths are frequently seen in children. Some of these are malignant, while some are benign. We must not suppose that children do not have malignant disease. I have seen malignant sarcoma involving the whole of the left lung which crowded the heart into the right axillary space.

SPINDLE-CELL SARCOMA OF THE THORAX.[2]

Gustav L., a male child of about 8 years, was first seen by me in July, 1900. His mother gave the following history:—

He was breast-fed about ten weeks and owing to a diminution in the quantity and quality of her milk, she was forced to wean the child. He then received sterilized milk. This food was given until the child was weaned from the bottle at about the end of his second year.

When about six months of age, a large, glandular swelling commenced behind the right ear, which necessitated an incision. The attending physician said it was an abscess. At this same time, he had a severe attack of gastric fever. This required careful dietetic treatment. Cow's milk was continued in a more modified form.

At age of 1 year the child was attacked with measles, accompanied by a catarrhal bronchitis. Some cough remained and when the child was 2 years old he had a severe attack of pertussis. When the child recovered, he remained well until he was 3 ¹/₂ years old, then he was infected with scarlet fever lasting two months. Thus the child passed his infancy with some gastric derangement, followed by measles, pertussis, and scarlet fever. He did not have croup or diphtheria.

"*Family History.*—This is good. The parents of this patient are both living, and apparently strong and healthy; they have two other boys, well and strong. There is no history of syphilis, rheumatism, gout, tuberculosis, epilepsy, nor anything of a malignant nature in the family, excepting this fact which is extremely noteworthy, that the grandfather had a sarcomatous tumor, which ended fatally.

"*Examination.*—The patient was brought to me for the relief of a number of tumors on the front of the thorax, which felt quite hard on palpation. At times a distinct sense of fluctuation could be made out, and when examined by an exploratory puncture, a few drops of thin, yellowish serum was obtained. These tumors have been very troublesome for the past few years. They have caused severe dyspnœa. The physician who treated this boy in Hamburg believed that the growths contained pus. This statement was made to the family. The physician made an exploratory puncture and was rewarded by a few drops of thin, serous liquid, as in a puncture I made and obtained no pus.

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[1] For complete list surgical works should be consulted.

[2] Read before the Section on Pediatrics, the New York Academy of Medicine, April 10, 1902.

"The size of the growth as seen externally is about 15 centimeters in length and about 6 to 7 centimeters in circumference. (See Fig. 288.) There is marked dullness on percussion extending over most of the left side. The tumor is surrounded by a network of veins, intensely engorged with blood. There is mediastinal pressure. As far as can be seen and palpated, the growth occupies that region of the thorax *usually occupied by the heart.* The growth varies in size from week to week.

"The heart has been pushed to the right side and occupies the right axilla. The apex beat is heard about two finger breadths below and to the right of the *right nipple.* (See figure 289.)

"The pulse is 144, small, feeble, quite irregular and easily compressible. The respiration is irregular, of the Cheyne-Stokes type, and frequently sighing. It is usually about 50-52 in a minute; the temperature is always above normal and varies from 100° F. in the rectum, morning, to 101 $^2/_5$° in the evening. There is always a febrile tendency.

"There is constant dyspnœa and also extreme cyanosis of the lips, fingers and toes. The child is very pale and in a very anæmic condition. There is extreme pallor of the conjunctival membrane, the gums, and the mucous membrane of the lips."

Owing to the extreme amount of weakness caused by anorexia, the child was compelled to remain in bed most of the time for the last year. Dyspnœa was so great that the child slept in a sitting posture. The child was very nervous and trembled when he was touched. He was very bright mentally. There was constant and rapid emaciation. Concentrated food was given, which the patient took quite well. There was extreme hyperæsthesia of the skin. The digestion was quite good, and although the bowels moved sluggishly, they did not require much medicinal treatment. Fruit and fruit juices acted as laxatives. There was a curvature of the spine from left to right, most marked in the dorsal vertebra. The urine was examined several times. It showed no evidence of pus or blood, no albumin and no sugar. There was a slight indican reaction. No acetone, no casts, no morphotic elements, microscopically.

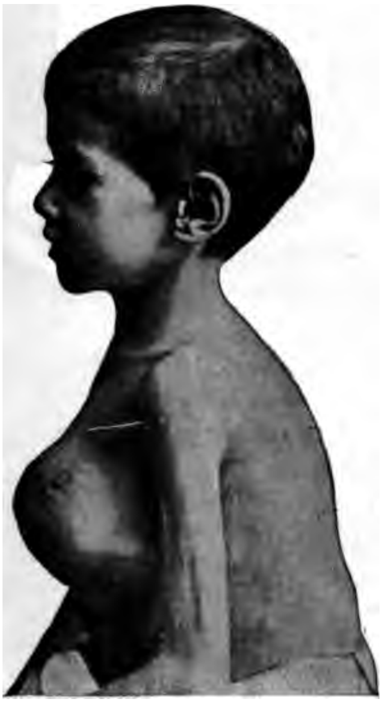

Fig. 288.—Spindle-cell Sarcoma. The prominence of the tumor shows by contrast the emaciation of the body. (Original.)

The case was hopeless from a medical standpoint, as the growth was constantly increasing. The child suffered constantly from insomnia and great dyspnœa, requiring constant soporifics and narcotics. In spite of the grave prognosis, the family hoped that surgical measures might afford some relief.

ENCHONDROMATA.

These hard growths are usually found on the fingers and toes. They are found in the neighborhood of the joints, with which they are closely allied. A case of this kind which had several tumors removed occurred in my practice:—

Mary B., 10 years old.

Family History.—Father healthy. Mother died of carcinoma of the uterus. Has one sister, who is healthy and married.

Patient's History.—Was breast-fed during infancy. Suffered with no gastric or enteric disorders. Had measles when several years old. Is not subject to any chronic disease. Her extremities are normal excepting the affected hand. The mother stated the tumors had been present soon after birth. They were not painful. nor did they cause discomfort, so nothing was done until the child reached this age. The case was referred by me to the surgical service of Dr. S. M. Landsman, who removed the growths. The case made a perfect recovery.

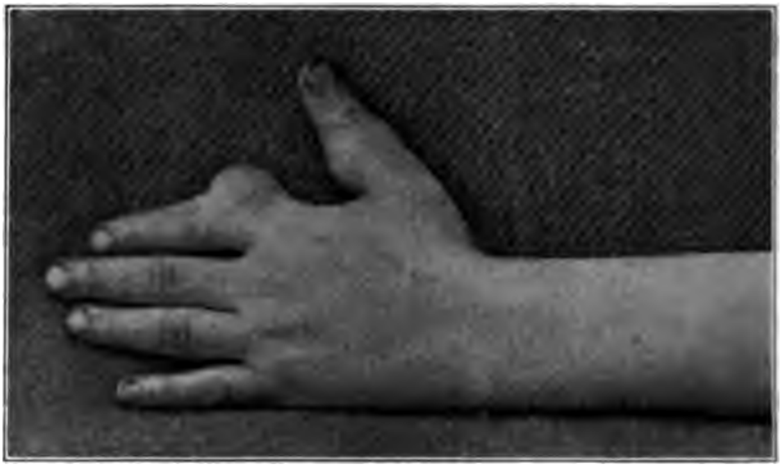

Fig. 290.—Enchondromata Involving the Thumb and Index Finger. (Original.)

SPINA BIFIDA.

Abnormal growths are frequently found in the lumbar region associated with the spinal cord. They are frequently seen in cases of hydrocephalus. A case of spina bifida is reported in the chapter on "Malformations of the Spine."

ANGEIOMA.

Angeioma.—Large vascular growths are occasionally seen in children. A case of this kind was seen by me, which I describe in the chapter on the "New-born Baby," page 57.

PAPILLOMATA.

This growth is occasionally seen in the larynx of infants and children. It may be congenital.

Symptoms.—Marked dyspnœa is usually a prominent symptom. This dyspnœa increases with the enlargement of the growth. There is also a husky voice, which increases in severity. The symptoms are very marked at night, but are much less, and frequently disappear entirely, during the day. Cough may also be present, but no expectoration. There is no fever. The diagnosis is usually made by a laryngoscopic examination. When the same symptoms appear for weeks and months, a laryngeal growth should be suspected.

Treatment.—Removal of the growth with an anæsthetic is absolutely necessary. The danger in removing the growth should always be borne in mind; hence the surgeon should be prepared to perform a tracheotomy if necessary. Intubation of the larynx will relieve the difficult breathing; at the same time there is danger of pushing some of this growth with the tube. thus obstructing the caliber of the same. Relapses are common.

GRANULOMATA.[1]

These growths are frequently seen at the site of the wound following a tracheotomy. They resemble a mass of exuberant granulations.

Prof. A. Rosenberg, of Berlin, collected 231 cases of laryngeal tumors in children. Some of them were subjected to tracheotomy; others received endo-laryngeal treatment preceded by tracheotomy. In another series of cases persistent endo-laryngeal treatment was resorted to without performing tracheotomy. This latter method yielded the better results.

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[1] In Part II, page 35, will be found article on "Granuloma."

PART XI.

DISEASES OF THE SPINE AND JOINTS.

POTT'S DISEASE.[1]

THIS disease derives its name from Percival Pott, who described it in 1779. "It is a chronic destructive process which begins in the bodies of the vertebræ. The bodies of the vertebræ support the weight of the body. As the disease progresses the weakened parts give way, and the upper segment inclines forward. An angular posterior projection, ***kyphosis,*** is formed which is the characteristic deformity of the disease."

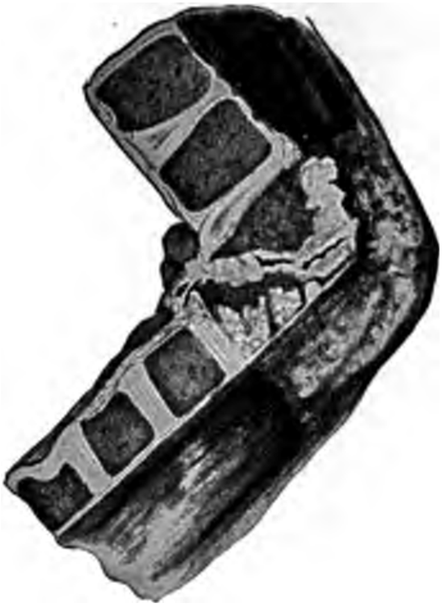

Fig. 291.—Pott's Disease (Langerhans). Kyphosis of dorsal vertebræ, the result of caseous tuberculous periostitis and osteomyelitis. Destruction of three thoracic vertebræ. Two-thirds natural size.

Etiology.—"Pott's disease may appear at any period of life, from earliest infancy to old age, but like all forms of tuberculosis of the bones, it is most common in the first ten years of life, and 50 per cent. of the cases begin between the ages of 3 and 5 years, inclusive.

"The lower segment of the spine, including the dorso-lumbar region, is most often involved. Cervical disease is relatively infrequent (cervical.

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[1] The table of differential points between Pott's Disease and Rickets will be found on page 321.

$7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; dorsal, 68 per cent.; lumbar, 24 per cent.). The death rate is at least 25 per cent. The course of the disease is most protracted in the middle region; it is shortest in the cervical region, its duration varying in favorable cases from two to five years.

"When the local resistance overcomes the tendency to degeneration, the process of repair begins. The tuberculous products are absorbed or enclosed, and ankylosis between the two segments of the spine is established by means of a union, in part fibrous, cartilaginous, and bony. Firm union is long delayed, and the deformity may increase long after the disease has become inactive" (Whitman).

Pathology and Bacteriology.—"The first indications of disease are most often found beneath the fibro-periosteal layer of the anterior longitudinal ligament. From this point the granulation tissue advances along the course of the blood-vessels into the adjacent bone, extending from one to another until several bodies are more or less involved. The disease is accompanied, in many instances, by an abscess, which may be of sufficient size to cause special symptoms; or the tuberculous process may find its way to the posterior part of the vertebral bodies and thus involve the spinal cord, causing paralysis. Abscess is most common as a complication of disease of the lower part of the spine, where it may be detected in at least 50 per cent. of the cases. Paralysis most often complicates disease of the upper dorsal region, appearing in about 10 per cent. of the cases in which this part of the spine is involved. The primary infection is no doubt due to the entrance of the tubercle bacillus."

Anatomical Landmarks.—"The atlas is on a line with the hard palate. The axis is on a line with the free edge of the upper teeth. The transverse process of the atlas is just below and in front of the tip of the mastoid process. The hyoid bone is opposite the fourth cervical vertebra.

"The cricoid cartilage is on a line with the sixth cervical vertebra.

"The upper margin of the sternum is opposite the disc between the second and third dorsal vertebræ.

"The junction of the first and second sections of the sternum is opposite the fourth dorsal vertebra.

"The tip of the ensiform cartilage is opposite the lower part of the body of the tenth dorsal vertebra.

"The anterior extremity of the first rib is on a line with the fourth rib at the spine, the second with the sixth, the fifth with the ninth, the seventh with the eleventh.

"The scapula covers the second and the seventh ribs, its lower angle being opposite the center of the eighth dorsal vertebra.

"The root of the spine of the scapula, the glenoid cavity, and the interval between the second and third dorsal spines are in the same plane.

"The most constant landmark from which to count is the spinous process of the fourth lumbar vertebra, which is on a line with the highest point of the crest of the ilium. The umbilicus is near the same plane.

"The tip of the coccyx is opposite the lower border of the symphysis pubis."

Symptoms.—If the upper part of the spine is affected, a stiffness of the neck usually exists. If the lower part of the spine is affected, limping will be noticed, hence awkwardness in walking in very anæmic children should always be looked upon as suspicious.

"The limitation of motion due to muscular spasm, to pain, and to the local disease is an important factor in diagnosis. This, together with the deformity, may be demonstrated by bending the patient's body directly forward to the fullest extent. An object is next placed on the floor, and the patient is directed to pick it up. If this is done awkwardly by squatting or kneeling, it demonstrates weakness and stiffness. The patient should next be placed prone upon a table, and the surgeon should test the flexibility of the spine by lifting the legs and swaying the body from side to side. The range of extension at the hips may be tested at this time by holding the pelvis against the table with one hand, while the thigh is overextended with the other. This is the test for the slight degree of psoas contraction that is often present on one or both sides in disease of the lower region.

"The flexibility of the upper part of the spine may be tested by voluntary and passive movements of the head in various directions, and the range of motion of the occipito-atlo-axoid joints by holding the neck while the patient nods and turns the head from side to side.

"The character and the extent of the deformity, if it be present, should next be investigated. Note the contour of the spine. Any change from the normal are, in childhood, suspicious circumstances. Note the elasticity of the spine. If when the child is bent forward the spine forms a long, regular, even curve, disease is unlikely. If there be a break in the outline, and if one part remains rigid and another bends, disease may be suspected."

Pott's disease in the lower region of the spine presents the following characteristics:—

1. *Pain.*—The pain is referred to the lower part of the abdomen, to the genitals, to the loins, or to the thighs.

2. *Gait.*—The waddling gait which has been described under general symptomatology is characteristic of disease in this region. In some cases there is a limp.

3. *Attitude.*—Usually an abnormal erectness and sometimes an exaggerated lordosis; in some instances a lateral inclination of the body. Unilateral psoas contraction and the attendant limp are often present.

4. *Stiffness.* — Muscular rigidity of the lumbar region interferes directly with almost every attitude and movement. The effect of this

stiffness and of the accompanying weakness may be demonstrated by the popular method of asking the child to pick up a coin from the floor. In this region of the spine the symptoms are usually well marked before the stage of deformity, flexion of the legs, the effect of psoas contraction, and abscess are present in perhaps a third of the cases.

Pott's disease of the middle region is characterized by the following peculiarities:—

1. *Pain* is referred to the lateral region of the thorax or to the front of the body. It is a common symptom. It is noted after sudden movements or after compressing the chest, as when the child is suddenly lifted from the floor.

2. *Respiration.*—If the disease is at all active, a grunting respiration is usually present, especially after exertion. This is the most characteristic of all symptoms, especially so in young subjects.

3. *Attitude.*—This is not always distinctive, but usually there is a peculiar shrugging squareness of the shoulders; occasionally a lateral inclination of the body. The head is often inclined backward. The neck seems short on account of the elevation of shoulders.

4. *Deformity.*—The deformity is usually prominent and it appears early in the disease.

5. *Complications.*—The most common complication of dorsal disease is paralysis, abscess being less frequent than in the lumbar region. Flat chest and chicken breast may be secondary deformities.

Pott's disease of the upper region presents the following peculiarities:—

1. If the uppermost cervical vertebræ are diseased, the *pain* is referred to the head, particularly to its lateral and posterior aspects. In disease of the middle cervical region it is referred to the neck, or to the shoulders or chest.

2. The *weakness and stiffness* are manifest by the *attitude.* The head cannot be turned freely. If the disease be in the occipito-axoid region, the nodding and rotary motions are restricted. The chin is often depressed and slightly turned to one side. Lateral distortion resembling torticollis usually occurs when disease is nearer the middle of the cervical region.

3. The bony *deformity* is often slight or absent, but thickening of the tissues about the spine and local sensitiveness to lateral pressure are usually present. Retro-pharyngeal abscess is not uncommon when the atlo-axoid region is involved.

Complications.—(a) *Abscess;* (b) *Paralysis:* About 25 per cent. of all cases have abscess. An abscess situated in the atlo-axoid region often burrows into the retro-pharyngeal space. It may involve the cranial cavity when this occurs; symptoms of meningitis will be noticed. When an abscess forms from disease of the middle cranial region it usually opens on the side of the neck, before or behind the sterno-cleido mastoid region. When abscess follows disease in the dorsal region it burrows through the thorax. It can be detected by the physical signs accompanying pain (see chapter on "Empyema").

When it burrows downward it may give rise to an iliac or lumbar abscess. "In disease of the lumbar region, the abscess, if superficial to the ilio-psoas muscle, may point in the neighborhood of the anterior superior spine, or pass through the inguinal ring. The true psoas abscess first distends the iliac region, and then passing into the thigh, appears in Scarpa's space. In large abscesses of this character the pus may find an exit in the loin at the triangle of Petit, or in the gluteal region through the sacrosciatic foramen.

"In rare instances the abscess may find an opening within the body, and burst into the lungs, the intestines, or elsewhere.

"As a rule abscess causes but little difficulty in diagnosis, because it is a late symptom, appearing after the diagnosis of Pott's disease has been established. It is more often an early symptom in the upper and lower regions of the spine, but in any event it is always accompanied by symptoms of the underlying disease of the spine."

Paralysis.—The symptoms of Pott's paralysis are "an awkward stumbling gait, weakness, and finally an inability to stand. The lower limbs are 'stiff' at times. The reflexes are increased. Control of the bladder may be retained, but often there is active incontinence; that is, the bladder empties itself from time to time. If the pressure is directly upon the reflex centers in the lumbar enlargement, there may be passive incontinence or dribbling of urine. If the pressure is below the reflex centers, the bladder is not affected, and the symptoms of numbness and weakness resemble those caused by neuritis."

Differential points concerning abscess:—

1. Abscess of the cervical region must not be confounded with the symptoms of enlarged tonsils, adenoids, or with so-called croup. It must also be distinguished from the simple acute abscesses of this region.

2. Abscess of the thoracic region is to be distinguished from those secondary to disease of the lung or of the chest wall.

3. Abscess in the loin or inguinal region may be mistaken for the acute or chronic abscess due to:—

(a) Perinephritis.	These are usually of acute onset and are accompanied by constitutional disturbances.
(b) Perityphlitis.	There may be secondary rigidity of the spine, but no deformity, as is usual in Pott's disease at the stage of abscess formation.
(c) Sacral or iliac disease.	The symptoms of Pott's disease are lacking.
(d) Hernia.	

The *paralysis* of Pott's disease must be distinguished from

1. Simple weakness.
2. Injury to the cord.
3. Tumors of the cord.
4. Syphilitic disease of the cord.

The *weakness and stiffness* caused by Pott's disease in the lower region may be simulated by lumbago, rheumatism, sciatica, and by the effect of injury or strain. Lumbago, rheumatism, and sciatica are uncommon in childhood. They are usually of sudden onset. Sciatica is usually unilateral; the pain of Pott's disease is usually bilateral. Strains and other injuries have, as a rule, a well-defined history.

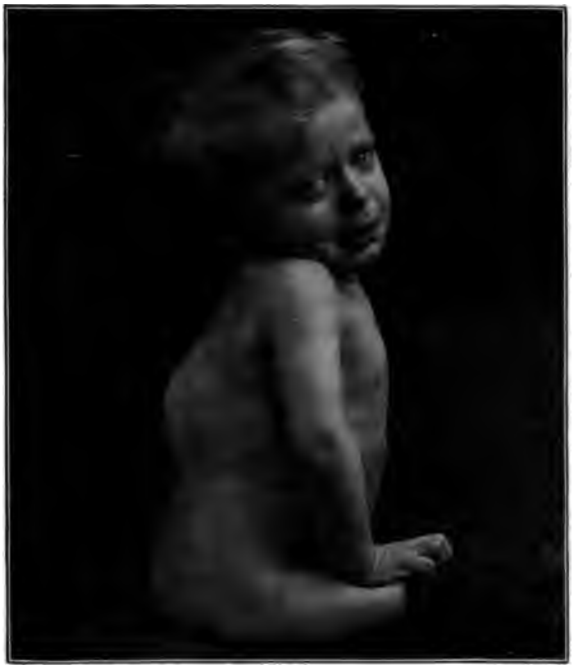

Fig. 292.—Pott's Disease. Case of Harry F. (Original.)

Prognosis.—This should be cautiously given. While most cases seen by me ended fatally, several cases improved and recovered entirely. Years of patient treatment are necessary, and occasionally the most severe cases may end in recovery.

Harry F., 4 years old.

Family History.—Father and mother are unhealthy, weak and very poor. One child has died of summer complaint. Another, two years younger, is inclined to cough, and was operated by me for empyema.

Personal History.—The child was born and has since then lived in a tenement house, in a densely populated section of the city. He was a bottle-fed infant, and has been constipated since birth, although he suffers with diarrhœa in summer. Has always been a frail and sensitive child. Has had measles and bronchitis, and is constantly troubled with some catarrhal affection. The child was late in walking, late in talking, and late in dentition. The general development shows backwardness when compared with a normal child. A slight deformity of the spine was first noticed when the child was about 2 years old. It has increased in prominence since that time. There is no distinct evidence of tuberculosis that can be made out in the lungs. The glands are not enlarged, there is no cough or expectoration. No evidence of fever.

The treatment consisted in giving codliver-oil and creosotal internally from 2 to 5 drops, three times a day. Friction of the body and general hygienic measures were instituted. Great stress was laid on the nourishment of the body. Cream, butter, eggs, cereals, and vegetables have been given constantly.

Orthopædic Treatment.—For the relief of the deformity, a supporting brace fitted to the body like a corset, similar to a Bradford frame, had been used for over six months with little improvement, therefore the case was sent to Dr. Ashley for a plaster-of-Paris corset. This treatment has been very successful, and the child is progressing favorably.

Treatment. — When pus is present nothing but surgical treatment should be considered. Surgical treatment is not always necessary. The majority of cases require support by means of (*a*) spinal splint; (*b*) spinal brace; (*c*) plaster jacket.

Either of these must be properly applied by a competent surgeon. I have seen some very disagreeable accidents due to a too tight plaster corset. For details in connection with the application of braces or plaster jackets the reader is referred to text-books on orthopædic surgery.

Medicinal Treatment.—This consists in giving restoratives such as codliver-oil, iron, and arsenic. Creosotal can be given with the codliver-oil. A rigid diet such as cream, butter, milk, cereals, eggs, vegetables, and fruits is indicated.

If the child lives in the city a change to the seashore or to the mountains will sometimes improve the chances of recovery.

FLATFOOT IN CHILDREN.

Children are not born flatfooted. Very heavy children are predisposed to flatfoot, especially if rickets is present. Laxity of the knees is usually found associated with this condition.

Treatment.—Careful orthopædic treatment is necessary. This usually consists in wearing a properly fitting shoe in which the arch is supported with the aid of a stiff steel or celluloid plate. At times a soft pad of felt only is necessary.

R. W. Lovett, of Boston, has contributed to the literature of this subject, and the reader is referred to his writings for details on this matter.

SCOLIOSIS (LATERAL CURVATURE OF THE SPINE).

A very frequent condition seen in weak children is curvature of the spine.

Etiology.—Children that were bottle-fed in infancy and especially those having rickets usually develop this condition. Anæmic children and those with flabby and atonic muscles are susceptible. *It is especially due to faulty habits of posture in the schoolroom.*

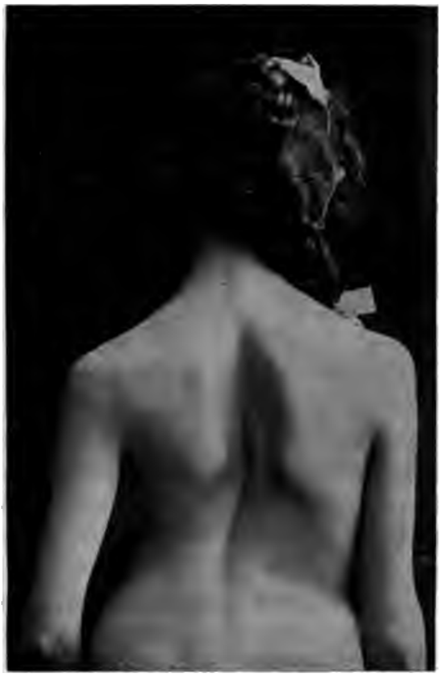

Fig. 293.—Schoolgirl, Showing Lateral Curvature of the Spine, Due to Faulty Position. (Original.)

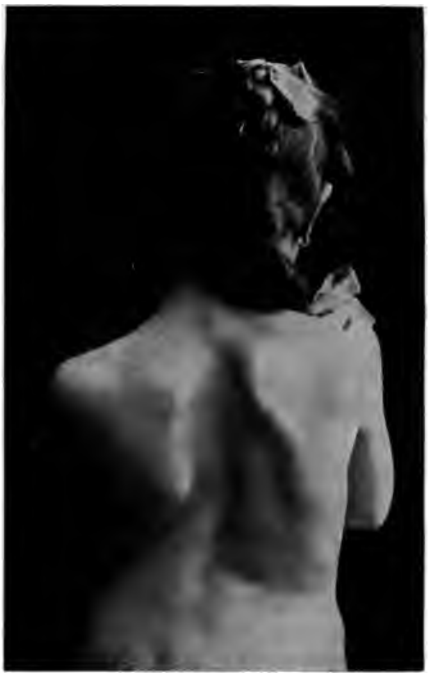

Fig. 294.—Lateral Curvature of Spine. Same girl. Arms folded. (Original.)

Symptoms.—Unless the child is undressed, no special symptoms may be noticed. At times a difference in the height of the shoulders and in the hips will be apparent. Pain is usually absent, although I have heard children, especially older girls, complain of backache constantly.

Prognosis.—This is usually good.

Treatment.—The correction of a case of scoliosis demands the supervision and advice of an orthopedist. In some forms of curvature a spinal corset or brace may be required. Many more cases require a plaster-of-Paris corset. Some writers advocate an overcorrection of this deformity[1] to eliminate the cuvature, and secure normal conditions. Other observers warn against the overcorrection method.[2] All are agreed that the most valuable part of the treatment consists, after removing the corset, in giving a systematic and thorough course of gymnastics to develop the weakened muscles of the spine. Gymnastics should be supplemented by massage.

The general nutrition of the body should be improved by exercise in the open air and restoratives such as Fellow's syrup and codliver-oil.

MORBUS COXARIUS (HIP-JOINT DISEASE; TUBERCULAR HIP-JOINT DISEASE).

Coxitis, commonly known as tuberculosis of the hip-joint, is not easily diagnosticated in the primary stage.

The age is no hindrance to the development of this disease, as it usually appears between the fifth and tenth years.

Coxitis can be found in apparently healthy children showing no sign of scrofulosis.

1. They complain of tenderness.
2. Impediment of locomotion of the affected extremity.
3. The change of the position.
4. Local changes in the region of the joint.

Symptoms.—The pain is one of the earliest symptoms and expresses itself by a feeling of tenderness in the affected joint or in the knee. The knee is quite characteristic in this affection and serves a good center for deception. In the knee no changes are directly noticeable; there is no impediment to locomotion. When the pain can be located in the knee-joint the pathological process in the hip-joint is usually fully developed. When children complain of pain in the knee-joint, it is always wise to examine the hip. One of the most characteristic symptoms is the invariable cry at night.

The child will cry frequently and will suddenly awaken at night, with pain along the thigh not pointing to a distinct spot, but showing that the pain is diffused along the leg; this symptom is rarely absent in true coxitis.

At the earliest stage of coxitis the pain is trivial, but instinctively the patient tries to use the healthy limb and not the unhealthy one. This is one of the causes of limping. When tenderness can actually be located, then locomotion is also limited. When this exists, difficulty in abduction and adduction appears.

When examining by grasping the affected limb with one hand and supporting the small of the back with the second hand, a distinct resistance of the muscles can be felt.

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[1] **Abbott:** N. Y. Medical Journal, April 27, 1912.

[2] **Ogilvy:** *Ibid.*

TUBERCULOUS COXITIS (DOUBLE).

C. M., 10 years old, girl. Duration of disease, in left hip six years, and right hip five years. No history of exanthematous diseases. Treated at the Post-graduate for seven months in orthopædic ward. An erasion of disease in left hip at this time.

Examination.—Right hip flexed to 90°, left hip flexed to about 95°. Right hip in adduction 10°, distinct spasm of the adductor muscles. Left hip in adduction 35°, slight spasm of the adductor muscles. Motion in right hip 10°, in left hip 20°. Right great trochanter two inches above Nelaton's line. Apparently no abscesses. Left trochanter almost denuded by erasion, only slightly above Nelaton's line. Many abscess scars, all healed.

Treatment.—Modified Gant on right side, forcible correction of the left side, with tenotomies.

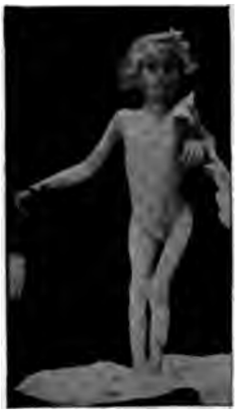

Fig. 295.—Tuberculous Coxitis—Front View.

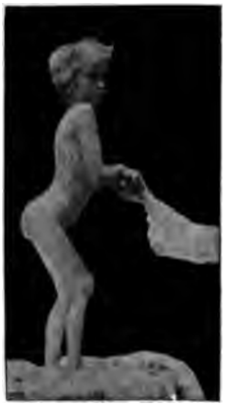

Fig. 296.—Tuberculous Coxitis—Side View.

CONGENITAL DISLOCATION OF THE HIP.

This is the most frequent form and the most important of the congenital dislocations.

Etiology.—Faulty development of the acetabulum and the head of the femur combined with laxity of the capsule and possibly pressure upon the flexed thigh are supposed to be the causes of this condition. The displacement is usually upon the dorsum, although it may take place forward or upward. It is most frequent in females. Whitman states that 85 per cent. occur in females. It is usually seen unilateral. I have seen many

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Illustrations Figs. 295 and 296 are furnished through the courtesy of Dr. Dexter Ashley.

cases bilateral. Sometimes a peculiar family predisposition seems to exist, as several children in the same family have this deformity.

Symptoms.—*Unilateral Dislocation:* The child limps when it begins to walk. The abdomen is very prominent. There is an abnormal lordosis. The buttocks appear enlarged. The thighs are usually separated and there is an increased breadth of pelvis. Shortening is difficult to detect in the beginning of the disease, but if the child grows older and the condition has been neglected, then a shortening of several inches may sometimes be detected. Such children are easily fatigued.

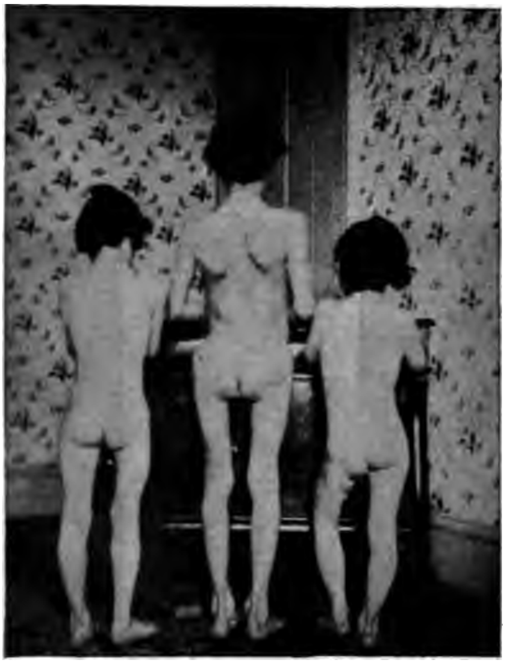
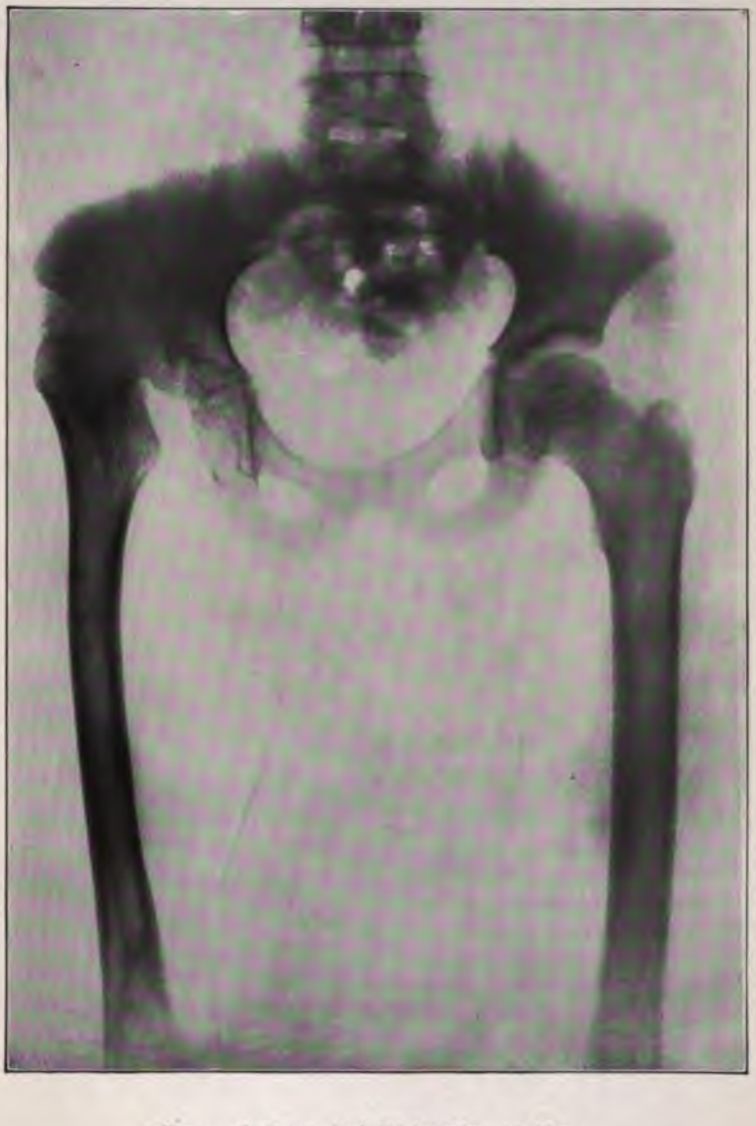


Fig. 297.—Congenital Hip Dislocation. Cases occurred in the practice of Dr. Dexter Ashley.

Bilateral Dislocation.—The pelvis is broadened and the thighs are far apart when the patient stands or walks. The limp is exaggerated and the child waddles. The lordosis is very marked.

Treatment.—Replacement by traction by extreme abduction and flexion with prolonged fixation in the attitude of extreme abduction known as the Lorenz treatment, is frequently successful. In some cases the [illegible]t is unsuccessful and a radical operation must then be

PLATE XLIII



X-ray of Congenital Dislocation of Hip.

G. L., male, 9 years old; A. L., female, 6 years old; H. L., female, 4 years old. Three out of five children in one family, of Irish parentage. No previous history of lameness.

G. L., double posterior dislocation; muscular; great telescopic motion; right side has a shortening of 2 1/4 inches, left side 2 3/4 inches, as per Nelaton's line; head and neck apparently well developed; thighs flexed adducted and rotated inward; marked lordosis; walking ungainly and laborious; limited motion in abduction and extension; feet inclined to be flat; can stand in almost normal position except lordosis. Skiagraph reveals very well-developed neck on each side, the right inclined to coxa varus; head on each side inclined to be conical; acetabula rather shallow, but well formed otherwise. Advised no operation as the child was too old, and the circumstances of the family would not admit of good after-treatment.

A. L., right posterior dislocation; distinct limp; limb carried slightly in adduction; shortening 1 1/2 inches; neck short and straight, or coxa valgus. Skiagraph verifies above observations, and shows an apparently poorly formed acetabulum, with considerable thickening. Preternatural mobility in all directions except abduction. Operation advised and performed. Transposition secured.

H. L., 4 years old; posterior dislocation; 3/4 inch shortening; limp well marked; neck and head rather short but of normal angle: preternatural mobility in all directions except abduction. Skiagraph reveals short head and neck, apparently well formed acetabulum. Operation performed. Very good result, but might have been improved upon if child had been brought in for after-treatment.

KNEE-JOINT DISEASE.

This is a chronic tuberculous inflammation due to an osteitis of the femur or tibia. It may begin as a synovitis similar to hip-joint disease.

Etiology.—Traumatism is usually the exciting factor, as in hip-joint disease.

Pathology.—The pathological lesions are those of tuberculosis. The tubercle bacillus is usually found, although it may be absent. The lesions spread and sometimes cause complete destruction of the joint. A characteristic swelling noted in tuberculous knee-joint is caused by an infiltration of the soft parts with a gelatinous substance which must be attributed to a tuberculous process.

Symptoms.—Children old enough to complain will describe pain when moving the joint. A limp is noticed when walking. A swelling of the joint gradually appears. The knee assumes a flexed appearance which is quite typical of this condition. As a result of the swelling in the joint, motion is limited, and the pain at times is very severe. Fever may or may not be present. In a case seen by me recently, although a large quantity of pus was present, no fever could be detected. This condition was one of the usual "cold abscess type."

Diagnosis.—This depends on the limitation of motion, on the swelling, and on the pain. It does not resemble rheumatism owing to the affection being limited to one joint. In rheumatism there is fever, at times very high fever, inflammation, swelling, and a sudden onset of symptoms. Just the reverse condition is found in knee-joint disease.

Prognosis.—The prognosis as a rule is good. Fully 90 per cent. of cases recover, according to Moore. When, however, cases are neglected, ankylosis of the knee-joint results.

Treatment.—Rest in bed, assisted by proper hygiene and a good supporting diet, constitute the general line of treatment to be pursued by the general practitioner. The deformity requires careful orthopædic treatment. A case of this kind usually requires a knee-splint or a plaster cast. It is self-understood that only one competent to do this should guide the treatment. For details regarding the application of knee-splints, etc., the reader is referred to works on orthopædic surgery.

DISEASES OF THE ANKLE-JOINT AND TARSUS.

Tubercular disease frequently affects the ankle and tarsus. The same pathological manifestations described in hip and knee-joint diseases are found here.

Symptoms.—As a rule a limp will be noticed. Associated with this there is swelling of the joint, limitation of motion, and in some cases fever; in other cases, atrophy of the muscles of the leg. The superficial veins are usually enlarged.

Diagnosis.—The slow onset of the symptoms associated with swelling and the limp on walking will usually aid in establishing the diagnosis. It is important to exclude rheumatism by carefully examining other joints of the body. The diagnosis rests upon the disease being limited to one joint in addition to the symptoms above described.

Prognosis.—The prognosis is usually good. Cases usually recover under proper management in six to nine months.

Treatment.—The same treatment described in the article on knee-joint disease applies here. The parts should be given absolute rest. This can be secured by the use of plaster of Paris casts. The rest of the treatment is restorative.

WRIST-JOINT AND ELBOW-JOINT DISEASE.

This condition is rarely met with in children. When, however, tuberculous manifestations exist the symptoms are the same as described in other tubercular joints.

Treatment consists in securing rest and immobility of the parts with the aid of plaster casts. Pus, when present, requires surgical relief. The outcome of these cases is as a rule good.

Joseph S., 10 years old, has been under the treatment of Dr. Dexter Ashley, to whom I am indebted for the illustration. The child was in an extremely anæmic condition, heart and lungs normal, no evidence of tuberculosis. Family history good. Local evidence of tuberculosis involving the elbow-joint, so-called bone tuberculosis

The boy was able to run about, and excepting this arm seemed to be in a fair physical condition. A comparison of the healthy elbow-joint with the diseased joint is quite interesting. Dr. Ashley's treatment consisted in strict aseptic dressings, tight bandaging, a bandage to support the return circulation and general restorative treatment.

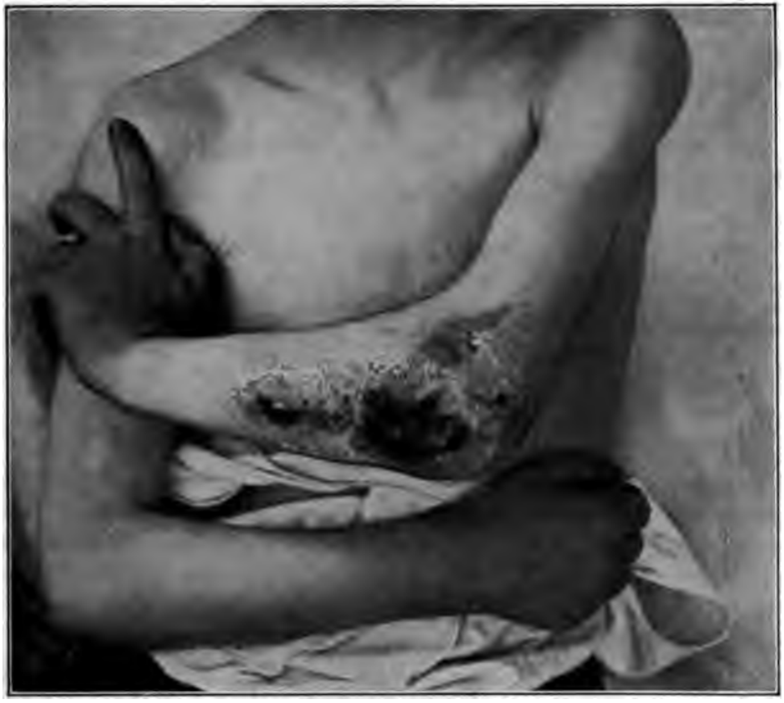


Fig. 298.—Tubercular Elbow-joint.

ACUTE ARTHRITIS (INFECTIOUS OSTEITIS: ACUTE PURULENT SYNOVITIS: ACUTE EPIPHYSITIS: ACUTE OSTEOMYELITIS).

This is an acute inflammatory condition involving a joint. It is always suppurative from the beginning; it is therefore a form of pyæmia. It is an infection originating at the bone in the medullary canal or in the joint.

Etiology.—This condition may follow the acute infectious diseases, especially those which show a tendency to suppurative processes. It most frequently follows measles, scarlet fever, and empyema.

There seems to be no reason to believe that this disease owes its existence to syphilis, tuberculosis, or scrofulosis. Some authors state that a history of traumatism has preceded this infectious disease.

Bacteriology.—Cultures taken of the purulent discharge usually show the presence of the streptococcus pyogenes or the staphylococcus. The point of entrance for the pathogenic bacteria may be either the skin, if abraded, the umbilicus, or the tonsil. In this manner the bacteria gain entrance to the circulation.

Symptoms.—Distinct swelling of the joint can be made out, although the inflammatory condition is deep-seated. The joint is red and inflamed and has a glazed appearance. Fluctuation can be felt if properly palpated. The usual symptoms of inflammation, such as high fever and chills or rigors, are present.

The joints most usually affected are best judged by studying Townsend's collection of cases:—

Hip	38 cases
Knee	27 cases
Shoulder	12 cases
Wrist	5 cases
Elbow	4 cases
Ankle	4 cases
Fingers	2 cases
Toes	1 case
Sterno clavicula	1 case

Diagnosis and Differential Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is easily made if we remember the rapidity with which this condition develops. It may resemble rheumatism, but the acute onset with the fever and the suppuration makes it easy to exclude rheumatism. Syphilis may resemble arthritis, but the fever and suppuration are never present in syphilis.

Prognosis.—If the disease extends rapidly death may occur in a few days. The outcome of the case depends on recognizing the disease in its early stages, and on the rapidity with which the suppurative condition is relieved.

Treatment.—The treatment is surgical. With aseptic care and attention to surgical detail, pus should be evacuated and the joint properly immobilized. To prevent deformity fixation of the joint should be remembered. Restorative treatment should consist in giving arsenic, maltine with hypophosphites, in addition to concentrated food and general hygienic care. The surgical treatment should be given into the hands of a surgeon.

PART XII.

MISCELLANEOUS.

CHAPTER I.

DIETARY.

BEVERAGES.

Albumin Water.—Stir the whites of 2 eggs into ½ pint of ice-water, without beating; add enough salt or sugar to make it palatable. Such a mixture is one of the best foods we have for substitute feeding an infant with digestive disturbances when we wish to temporarily stop all milk-food.

Almond-milk.—Take two ounces of sweet almonds, scald them with boiling water; after a few moments express them from the hulls; then pour the hot water away. Put the blanched almonds into a mortar and pound them thoroughly, and add either 2 ounces of milk or 2 ounces of plain water. After this is thoroughly mixed, it is to be strained through cheese-cloth, and the strained liquid will be the almond-milk.

Arrowroot Water.—Add 2 tablespoonfuls of arrowroot to 1 pint of water; allow it to simmer for half an hour, stirring it constantly.

Barley Water.—Take a tablespoonful of pearl barley,[1] grind it in a coffee-grinder, or pound it in an ordinary mortar; add 1 quart of cold water, and allow it to simmer slowly for about an hour. Strain and add enough water to make 1 quart.

Beef Juice.—Expressed beef juice is obtained by slightly broiling a piece of lean beef and expressing the juice with a lemon-squeezer. One pound of steak yields 2 or 3 ounces of juice. This is flavored with salt and given cold or warm. Do not heat enough to coagulate the albumin. This is very nutritious and usually well taken. It may be given at the rate of a tablespoonful three times a day.

Cocoa.—For each large cup take a teaspoonful of cocoa and a teaspoonful of sugar; mix to a paste with a little boiling water or milk; add balance of milk or milk and water, as richness is desired. Let it boil a minute, as boiling improves it.

Chocolate (Unsweetened).—For each breakfastcup take 1 division, break in small pieces, and allow to melt; add milk or milk and water, as richness is desired. Stir constantly. Bring to a boiling point and set aside to simmer. Sugar to taste.

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[1] Prepared barley flour can be procured in pound boxes from the Health Food Company of New York City.

Eggnog.—Heat some milk to a temperature of 150° F., *but do not allow the milk to boil.* When cold, beat up a fresh egg with a fork in a tumbler with some sugar; beat to a froth, add a dessertspoonful of brandy, and fill up tumbler with the warm milk.

Oatmeal Water.—Take a tablespoonful of ordinary oatmeal, and add 1 pint of water. Allow it to simmer slowly for one hour and strain. Add enough water to make 1 pint. The same directions apply to making a household mixture of farina-water, and sago-water, using the same proportions as above.

Rice Water.—One ounce of well-washed Carolina rice. Macerate for three hours at a gentle heat in a quart of water, and then boil slowly for an hour and strain. It may be sweetened and flavored with a little lemon-peel. Useful in diarrhœa, etc., when the flavoring is best dispensed with, and a little old cognac added.

Yolk of Egg Lemonade.—Take the beaten yolk of 1 egg and add to it the juice of $^1/_2$ lemon. Let stand five minutes, thus drawing off the raw taste of the yolk of egg. Add 1 teaspoonful of sugar and 8 ounces of water.

White of Egg Orangeade.—Take the juice of 1 orange and 1 ounce of water, insert an egg whisk, and when the orangeade is in full agitation. add slowly the white of egg. Continue the whisking for two or three minutes more. Add ¼ teaspoonful of sugar.

White of Egg Lemonade.—Leftwich[1] advises the following for a nutritive drink for febrile and wasting diseases:—

℞ Lemons	2
White of eggs	2
Boiling water	1 pint
Loaf sugar to taste.	

The lemon must be peeled twice—the yellow rind alone being utilized —while the white layer is rejected.

Place the sliced lemon and the yellow peel in a quart jug with 2 lumps of sugar. Pour upon them the boiling water and stir occasionally. When cooled to the ordinary temperature, strain off the lemons.

Now insert an egg whisk, and when the lemonade is in full agitation add slowly the white of egg. Continue the whisking for two or three minutes more. While still hot, strain through muslin. Serve when cold.

The white of egg will be found to impart a blandness which makes the addition of sugar almost unnecessary.

This drink is very useful in the febrile diseases of children. It may be given simply as a lemonade, without mentioning the eggs, and will thus be readily taken by the children and difficult patients. It also possesses antiscorbutic properties, which replace those lost from milk by boiling and sterilizing.

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[1] Edinburgh Medical Journal.

SOUPS AND BROTHS.

Chicken Broth.—Cut up a small chicken, put bones and all, with a sprig of parsley, salt, 1 tablespoonful of rice, and a crust of bread, in a quart of water and boil for one hour, skimming it from time to time. Strain through a coarse colander.

Keller's Malt Soup.—Take of wheat-flour 50.0 (about 2 ounces). To this add 11 ounces of milk. Soak the wheat-flour thoroughly, and rub it through a sieve or strainer.

Put into a second dish 20 ounces of water, to which add 3 ounces of malt extract; dissolve the above at a temperature of about 120° F., and then add 10 cubic centimeters (about 2 $^1/_2$ drachms) of 11 per cent. potassium bicarbonate solution. Finally mix all of the above ingredients, and boil.

This gives a food containing:—

Albuminoids	2.0 per cent.
Fat	1.2 per cent.
Carbohydrates	12.1 per cent.

There are in this mixture:

Vegetable proteids	0.9 per cent.

The wheat-flour is necessary, as otherwise the malt soup would have a diarrhœal tendency. The alkali is added to neutralize the large amount of acid generated in sick children. Biedert emphasizes the importance of giving fat, rather than reducing its quantity, in poorly nourished children, and cites the assimilability of his cream-mixture or of breast-milk in underfed children as proof of his assertions. The author has used this malt soup most successfully in the treatment of athrepsia (marasmus) cases in which the children were simply starved.

Mutton Soup.—Cut up fine 2 pounds of lean mutton, without fat or skin. Add 1 tablespoonful of barley, 1 quart of cold water, and a teaspoonful of salt. Let it boil slowly for two hours. If rice is used in place of barley, soak the rice in water over night, if it is to be boiled in the morning.

Oyster Broth.—Cut into small pieces 1 pint of small oysters; put them into $^1/_2$ pint of cold water, and let them simmer gently for ten minutes over a slow fire. Skim, strain, and add salt.

White Celery Soup.—Take $^1/_2$ pint of strong beef-tea; add an equal quantity of boiled milk, slightly and evenly thickened with flour. Flavor with celery seeds or pieces of celery, which are to be strained out before serving. Salt to taste.

PUDDINGS AND DESSERTS.

Calf's-foot Jelly.—Thoroughly clean 2 feet of a calf, cut into pieces, and stew in 2 quarts of water until reduced to 1 quart; when cold, take off the fat and separate the jelly from the sediment. Then put the jelly into a saucepan, with the shells and whites of 4 eggs well mixed together; boil for a quarter of an hour, cover it, and let it stand for a short time, and strain while hot through a flannel bag into a mould. Flavor with lemon.

Baked Apples.—Core and pare 2 tart apples; fill the core-holes with sugar; grate over the apples a little nutmeg; add a little water to baking-pan and put in oven and bake until the apples are soft. Serve with rich milk or cream. Sprinkle with icing sugar, if not sweet enough.

Cornstarch Pudding.—Take 1 pint of milk, and mix with it 2 tablespoonfuls of cornstarch; flavor to taste; then boil the whole eight minutes; allow it to cool in a mould.

Custard Pudding.—Break 1 egg into a teacup, and mix thoroughly with sugar to taste; then add milk to nearly fill the cup, mix again, and tie over the cup a small piece of linen; place the cup in a shallow saucepan half-full of water and boil for ten minutes.

If it is desired to make a light batter pudding, a teaspoonful of flour should be mixed in with the milk before tying up the cup.

Infant's Gelatine Food.—About 1 teaspoonful of gelatine should be dissolved by boiling in ½ pint of water. Toward the end of the boiling 1 gill of cows' milk and 1 teaspoonful of arrowroot (made into a paste with cold water) are to be stirred into the solution, and 1 to 2 tablespoonfuls of cream added just at the termination of the cooking. It is then to be moderately sweetened with white sugar, when it is ready for use. The whole preparation should occupy about fifteen minutes.

Junket of Milk and Egg.—Beat 1 egg to a froth and sweeten with 2 teaspoonfuls of white sugar. Add this to ½ pint of warm milk; then add 1 teaspoonful of essence of pepsin (Fairchild); let it stand till it is curdled. The above is useful in typhoid and similar wasting diseases.

Junket.—Add 1 teaspoonful of liquid rennin to 1 pint of milk. Mix and heat until the steam rises. Pour into cups and set aside to cool. Flavor with vanilla if desired. Or, to a bowl containing 8 ounces of cool milk, add 1 teaspoonful of pepsencia (Fairchild). Mix thoroughly. Place bowl in pan of boiling hot water, two minutes. Remove, and let stand until jellied.

Predigested Eggs.—Break a fresh egg. After thoroughly stirring add to it 2 grains of caroid powder and stir thoroughly. The yolk is at once changed into a limpid liquid and soon, though not so quickly, the albumin is completely dissolved. This is done at a temperature of 70° to 80° F.

Predigested Rice.—Take ¼ pound of rice, add water, and boil until *soft*. Break grains by passing through a colander. Take, of bana-diatase, 8 grains,[1] and dissolve it in 1 ounce of water and add to the rice, which must be kept warm, but not hot. Let stand for two hours at a temperature of 105° F. When rice is thoroughly softened, season with salt, sparingly. Add a little cream if desired. Serve hot or cold.

Rice Pudding.—Boil a teacupful of rice, drain off the water; add a tablespoonful of cold butter. Mix with it a cupful of sugar, a quarter teaspoonful of ground nutmeg, and a quarter teaspoonful of cinnamon. Beat up 4 eggs very light, whites and yolks separately; add them to the rice; stir in a quart of sweet milk gradually. Butter a pudding dish, turn in the mixture, and bake one hour in a moderate oven.

If you have cold cooked rice, first soak it in the milk, and proceed as above.

Sago Pudding.—Same as above recipe, sago being substituted for rice.

Soft Custard.—Take of cornstarch 2 tablespoonfuls to 1 quart of milk; mix the cornstarch with a small quantity of the milk, and flavor; beat up 2 eggs. Heat the remainder of the milk to near boiling; then add the mixed cornstarch, the eggs, 4 tablespoonfuls of sugar, a little butter, and salt. Boil the custard two minutes, stirring briskly.

Tapioca Cream.—Take 1 pint of milk, 2 tablespoonfuls of tapioca, 2 tablespoonfuls of sugar, 1 saltspoonful of salt, and 2 eggs. Wash the tapioca. Add enough water to cover it, and let it stand in a warm place until the tapioca has absorbed the water. Then add the milk and cook in a double boiler, stirring often until the tapioca is clear and transparent. Beat the yolks of the eggs. Add the sugar and salt and the hot milk. Cook until it thickens. Remove from the fire. Add the whites of the eggs, beaten stiff. When cold, add 1 teaspoonful of vanilla.

MODIFIED COWS' MILK.

Humanized Milk.—A pint of milk is set aside until the cream rises, and this cream is skimmed off and kept. To the milk remaining is added enough rennet to curdle it. The whey is strained off the curd and added, with the previously separated cream, to a pint of fresh cows' milk. This is known as humanized milk. In some infants it will be well borne during the first three months, and to this can be added farinaceous liquid for dilution if required.

Pasteurized Milk.—This is really partially sterilized milk, and consists in heating to a temperature of 140° F. instead of 212° F., this heating to be continued from ten to twenty minutes. Pasteurized milk should only be used during the twenty-four hours following this process. A good apparatus for this purpose is Kilmer's pasteurizing apparatus.

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[1] American Ferment Company.

CHAPTER II.

THE EXAMINATION OF THE GASTRIC CONTENTS IN CHILDREN.[1]

CHEMICAL EXAMINATION.[2]

AFTER the removed chyle is filtered it is ready for the following tests:—

Hydrochloric Acid.—Free hydrochloric acid turns Congo-red a deep blue color; but as the presence of large quantities of lactic and other organic acids gives the same reaction, and as the phloroglucin-vanillin (Günzburg's reagent) does not respond to the organic acids, it is better not to depend upon the simpler Congo-red test. One or two drops of the filtered stomach-contents are placed on a white porcelain dish; the same amount of the reagent is added and thoroughly mixed with a glass rod: the dish is then gently warmed over the flame. The appearance of a bright cherry-red color on the edge of the residue indicates the presence of free hydrochloric acid.

To 10 cubic centimeters of the filtered chyle add 1 drop of phenolphthalein solution: to this add drop by drop from the burette a decinormal solution of potassium or sodium hydrate until after thoroughly stirring, a pink color persists; now read carefully the number of cubic centimeters of the alkali solution used, multiply by 10 and 0.00365 (the decinormal factor of HCl) and the result is the percentage of HCl. If sufficient material is at hand, the estimation should be repeated to avoid possible error.

Lactic Acid (Uffelmann's Test).—One drop of the solution of ferric chloride is added to 20 cubic centimeters of the $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. carbolic acid solution: this is diluted till a transparent amethyst blue color is obtained. A few drops of the fluid to be tested added to a few cubic centimeters of this solution in a test-tube, change the amethyst-blue to a canary-yellow if lactic acid be present. On account of the presence of various other substances this test is sometimes not distinctive when the untreated chyle is used. A more certain procedure is to add to 10 cubic centimeters of the filtered chyle in a test-tube 110 cubic centimeters of ether; shake thoroughly;

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[1] With a soft flexible catheter I syphon the gastric contents about two hours after [illegible] the stomach is irritable and children vomit, then the vomited

[2] [illegible] my book on "Diseases of the Stomach" for many methods used.

allow the ether to separate; decant the ether into a clean test-tube; place the test-tube containing the ether in a glass of warm water till the ether has evaporated; add 5 to 10 cubic centimeters of distilled water to the residue, and test as above for lactic acid.

Propeptone.—To 5 cubic centimeters of chyle, add 5 cubic centimeters of saturated solution of sodium chloride and 2 drops of acetic acid. A cloudiness or precipitate indicates propeptone, especially if the precipitate disappears on heating and returns on cooling.

Peptone.—Filter out any propeptone from the last named; add an excess of sodium hydrate solution; mix thoroughly and add 1 or 2 drops of a weak solution of copper sulphate ($^1/_2$ per cent.); the appearance of a violet-red or old-rose color indicates peptone. This is the so-called biuret reaction which most peptones and albumoses give.

Pepsin.—For this test we require uniform, small pieces of coagulated albumin; these should be little circular slices of hard boiled white of egg, 1 centimeter in diameter and 1 millimeter in thickness, which may be preserved in glycerine. One of these discs is placed in a test-tube containing 5 cubic centimeters of filtered chyle and kept at a temperature of 99° F.; if it has been already shown that hydrochloric acid is absent, 1 drop or 2 of dilute hydrochloric must be added. The tube is observed every twenty to thirty minutes to note the progress of digestion and the time required for complete disappearance of the egg albumin.

Rennet.—Add a few drops of chyle to 5 or 10 cubic centimeters of milk and place tube in water at a temperature of 99° F.

Motility.—The motility of the stomach may be tested in various ways; probably the salol-test, although open to many objections, is the most used.

This test finds the foundation for its use in the fact that salol is not absorbed until it reaches the alkaline secretions of the intestine, by which it is decomposed. The test is untrustworthy when the stomach secretion is alkaline. The time between ingestion and the appearance of salicyluric acid in the urine is noted by examining the urine at intervals of one-half and one hour after taking 15 grains of salol (immediately after meal). If salicyluric acid be present in the urine, the addition of a few drops of a solution of ferric chloride gives a violet color. If the appearance of the test be delayed longer than an hour or an hour and fifteen minutes, the motility is usually considered below normal.

CHAPTER III.

URINE.

METHOD OF COLLECTING URINE.

IN collecting urine from an infant we can apply a pad of sterile absorbent cotton or a flat sterile sponge to the vulva. After urination the urine absorbed can be filtered into a bottle. If the urine thus secured is not sufficient for examination, the method can be repeated several times. In boys the smallest size rubber ice-bag can be drawn over the genitals and a specimen secured in this manner.

If for any reason this method cannot be carried out, and it is vital that the examination be made, then an infant's size catheter may be used to draw off the urine.

THE FIRST URINE.

The first urine drawn by catheter is acid, almost always clear and but slightly colored. During the first four or five days it is more or less cloudy from the presence of epithelial cells from the urinary passage, and uric acid salts. The specific gravity averages about 1012. The sediment always contains normal epithelial cells, various forms of uric acid crystals, and now and then hyaline casts. The amount of urine is small (Morse). This is due in part only to the insufficient supply of milk, as the amount is also small in bottle-fed infants. It increases rather rapidly about the fourth day, 20 to 50 cubic centimeters being passed in the first three days, and about 100 cubic centimeters on the fourth day. In the second week it averages between 200 and 300 cubic centimeters.

The proportion of water eliminated in the urine to that taken in the food is greater after the fourth day, averaging 22 per cent. to 25 per cent. before, and 50 per cent. to 60 per cent. after.

The urine of breast-fed babies almost never contains indican, that of the artificially fed baby usually but slight traces. Urobilin is never present in that of the breast-fed, seldom in that of the artificially fed. It does not contain albumin, and sugar is absent with the ordinary reagents. The sediment is slight, and consists entirely of cells. One-third to one-half gram of urea per kilo of body weight is said to be passed in twenty-four hours. Figures are of but little use, however, as the amount of urea varies with the character of the food. It is pretty certain, nevertheless, that from 40 to 50 per cent. of the nitrogen ingested appears in the urine. The amount of urine is relatively large. It varies between 200 and 500 cubic centimeters from one to six months, and between 250 and 600 cubic centimeters up to 2 years.

The urine of the new-born is rich in sodium chloride, which salt diminishes with age. During the first and second months of life it is in the same proportion as in adults. From the third to the fifth year, computed by kilogram weight, the amount is 0.57 gram; at 11 years, 0.44 gram, and at 16 years, 0.18 gram.

Phosphoric acid is seldom found, but when met with it is always in very minute quantity.

Uric acid is present in the earliest urine, and the quantity regularly increases up to the third day, when it rapidly diminishes.

On examining the kidneys of a new-born, the papillæ will be found filled with a reddish substance which obstructs the urinary ducts; this, as is well known, is nothing more than uric acid infarction and has no pathological significance.

Parrot and Robin found urate of soda, sulphate of calcium, magnesium, potassium, benzoic acid, allantoidin, and mucin, and Cruse denies the presence of sugar, oxalate of calcium, or hippuric acid. Creatinine and indican are not found in the urine of the new-born or wet-nursed. Xanthine is relatively abundant in cases of nephritis.

In infantile atrophy, as may be presumed, the quantity of urine is far below the normal; it is yellow, acid reaction, often contains organic deposits, sugar, albumin and an excess of urea and phosphates.

In icterus neonatorum the urine is pale-yellow, and contains urates, epithelial cells, and yellow masses of pigment.

The urine of infants with scleroderma is reddish, acid with uratic deposits, and slight excess of urea.

ALBUMIN.

The presence of albumin is always of importance, although not always due to an inflammatory process of the kidneys. It is often the sign of a simple congestion in athrepsia, cholera infantum, general or intestinal tuberculosis, intestinal catarrh, typhoid and scarlet fever.

"A small amount of albumin in the form of nucleo-albumin is almost constantly present in the urine during the first four days of life. It often persists for two weeks, and not infrequently for two months. There is much difference of opinion as to the cause of this albuminuria. It has been attributed to the changes in the circulation at birth, to hyperæmia resulting from the changes in the metabolism after birth, to renal disease in the mother. and to irritation from uric acid. It is doubtful if any of these explanations are correct. The latest investigations show that albuminuria is no more common in the children of women suffering from nephritis or eclampsia than in others. If uric acid is the cause, its action is probably as a chemic rather than as a mechanic irritant. Many observers regard this albuminuria as physiologic. It is hardly safe to consider it so, however, until more is known about metabolism, the changes due to nourishment, and disturbances of nutrition in the new-born. Whatever the cause, it is certainly not a serious condition, and ought not to be looked upon as the forerunner of chronic nephritis in later life."

In older children the presence of albumin in the urine is always pathological, except when it is the physiological result of the administration of certain drugs (tincture of iodine, etc.).

A slight amount of albumin may be found in nephritic colic due to the stimulus which the uric acid exerts upon the renal parenchyma. At other times, when present, there is an actual inflammation of the kidneys. as in scarlatina and diphtheria; there may be an amyloid degeneration without its being possible to discover any albumin in the urine.

Sometimes children will be found pale, the urine perhaps abundant or diminished in quantity; it will contain albumin, a few hyaline casts, uric acid and epithelium, yet they will have good appetite, will play and appear otherwise quite well. Others become languid, lose their appetite, complain of headaches, painful micturition, and will pass a turbid and sedimentous urine. In these cases albumin soon appears.

The more severe cases suffer from anuria; partial œdema will occur in the eyelids, on the dorsum of the foot, etc. The next day the amount of urine will have been 50 to 100 grams in twenty-four hours. This will increase, perhaps, never to return to the normal.

The color of the urine in Bright's disease will be variable, according to the amount of blood which it may contain, of acid reaction, and average specific gravity of 1010 to 1015. Under the microscope we find red and white corpuscles, hæmatin, renal epithelium, hyaline or granular casts, uric acid crystals, fat globules, and detritus.

Chronic nephritis may be the result of an acute affection complicating scarlet fever. In these cases children suffer but little and seldom show more than a few œdematous spots.

These forms of kidney involvement are rather rare, and cases which have been diagnosed as such have, on autopsy, proven to have been cases of amyloid degeneration due to syphilis, malaria, rachitis, struma, or tuberculosis.

In the mild forms of diphtheria the urine suffers no change whatever, but in the general infection, even in the early stages, albuminuria is found, which is a fairly positive evidence of systemic infection. If the urine diminishes in quantity and blood corpuscles are found under the microscope we may feel sure that the diphtheritic process has invaded the kidney, or else that a nephritis complicates the diphtheria.

"In rachitis, albuminuria is comparatively rare; the quantity does not change materially, but the calcium salts have been found in marked diminution. Marchand and Lehman have discovered lactic acid present. The phosphates and chlorides are in very small quantities. The urine of leukæmic patients at times contains albumin and many lymph corpuscles as well as hyaline casts. The uric acid and hypoxanthine are in greater quantity.

"Diabetes mellitus has been met with at a very tender age.

"In a case of pseudo-hypertrophic paralysis Dennen reports marked glycosuria.

"Hæmoglobinuria is found in Winckel's disease, and the same as in adults, in malaria, syphilis, and as a result of exposure to cold.

"Hæmaturia and pyuria have no special significance beyond that which they have in adults.

"Uric acid is in excess during the first week and is a physiological phenomenon; later on, deposits of urates and uric acid appear in the course of serious diseases of the digestive apparatus. Under other circumstances, the oxidation of nitrogenous substances being diminished (by diseases of the respiratory or central nervous system), deposits of oxalate of calcium occur.

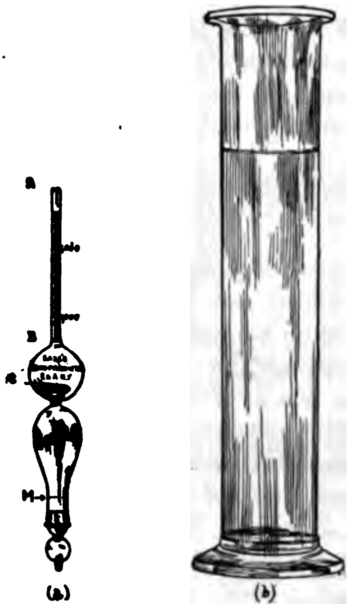

Fig. 299.—Urino-Pyknometer,[1] for estimating the specific gravity of small volumes of urine.

"Infarcts of uric acid may be found even up to the seventh or eighth week. Children will strain, make repeated efforts and cry out during urination; the diapers will be found stained with a darker urine than usual; the edges of the wet surface will be seen reddened by a yellowish-pink sandy deposit. A careful analysis of this urine regularly shows an excess of uric acid, many epithelial cells, a few pus corpuscles, and mucus and traces of albumin. Quite frequently the urine is so acid as to produce such pronounced evidences of pain on the part of the infant as are met with in the nephritic colic of adults.

"When tubercle bacilli are present in urinary sediment, the diagnosis of tuberculosis of the kidneys, ureters, or bladder may be positively made. Care should be exercised not to confound the tubercle bacillus with the smegma bacillus, which may often be present in the same specimen of urine and which stains like the former, though it decolorizes differently.

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[1] It can be procured at Eimer & Amend, chemists' supplies, New York City.

will turn blue, and if it is acid the blue litmus paper will turn red. It is very important that when testing for sugar the urine should be slightly alkaline, and when testing for albumin it should be slightly acid. In order to render the specimen slightly alkaline or slightly acid according to the test that is to be applied, sodium carbonate tablets and citric acid tablets should be used.

Robert's Albumin Test.

℞ Sat. sol. magnes. sulph. (c. p.)	5 ounces
Nitric acid (c. p.)	1 ounce

This test is a cold one, viz.: put about 1 cubic centimeter of solution into medium-sized test-tube—incline on a steady rest on an angle of 45 degrees. With a slender pipette allow the filtered urine to be tested—to flow very slowly down the side of the tube. It will float above test solution. Use about 1 cubic centimeter of urine. Examine in front of the window by daylight, with aid of black background. A sharp clear-cut, white line will appear at contact line if albumin is present. A wide band of white is not always indicative of albumin, neither is a narrow zone above in the urine, which may be due to mucus. The sharp, clear-cut zone is distinctive.

A New Test for Albumin.[1]—This new and simple test is based upon the following facts:—

1. Albumin is coagulated by carbolic acid.

2. Equal volumes of non-albuminous urine and a mixture, composed of equal parts of carbolic acid and glycerine, form an emulsion which clears up entirely upon agitation, leaving a perfectly transparent and highly refractive liquid.

3. Equal volumes of albuminous urine and the above mentioned carbol-glycerine solution, when mixed together, produce a white turbidity, which remains, in spite of agitation, and does not precipitate on standing nor redissolve.

The test is very sensitive, distinctly showing the presence of 0.1 per cent. of albumin in the urine, the degree of turbidity being proportionate to the percentage of albumin contained in the urine.

Test.—Two cubic centimeters of carbol-glycerine solution are poured into a small test-tube, and 2 cubic centimeters of the filtered urine are added. Mix thoroughly with a glass rod, or agitate. If a clear, transparent liquid results, there is no albumin present; but if the slightest turbidity is noticeable the urine is albuminous.

The Diazo Reaction in Urine.—The diazo test was suggested by Ehrlich, in 1882, as a valuable diagnostic measure in typhoid fever, although he admitted the occurrence of this reaction in a few other conditions shortly to be considered.

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[1] Fuhs, Medical Record, March 8, 1902.

The diazo reaction depends upon the fact that if sulphanilic acid (amidosulphobenzol) be acted upon by HNO, diazosulphobenzol is formed, which unites with certain aromatic substances occasionally present in the urine to form aniline colors.

Friedenwald has recently reviewed the literature of this reaction, and showed that many of the contradictory results obtained by some observers are due to failure in carrying out Ehrlich's methods in performing the test, which is best accomplished as follows:—

To obtain diazosulphobenzol in a perfectly fresh condition sulphanilic acid is kept in solution with hydrochloric acid; to this sodium nitrate is added, whereupon HNO is liberated and diazosulphobenzol is formed.

Process.—Two solutions are prepared, as follows:—

1. Two grams of sulphanilic acid, 50 cubic centimeters of hydrochloric acid, 1000 cubic centimeters of distilled water.

2. A 0.5 per cent. solution of sodium nitrite.

In performing the test, 50 parts of No. 1 and 1 part of No. 2 are mixed, and equal parts of this mixture and of the urine in a test-tube are rendered strongly alkaline with ammonia. If the reaction be positive the solution assumes a carmine-red color, which on shaking must also appear on the foam. Upon standing for twenty-four hours a greenish precipitate is formed.

The test must not be considered positive unless a distinct red coloration extends to and includes the foam on shaking.

Diazo Reaction in Nurslings and Children.—"The diazo reaction never appears in the urine of healthy nurslings.

"High temperatures in children do not affect the reaction.

"Catarrhal pneumonia (acute) and also chronic does not give the reaction.

"Diphtheria and varicella do not give this reaction.

"Otitis, coryza, lymph-adenitis, omphalitis, bronchial catarrh, pleuritis, gastro-intestinal catarrh, colitis, congenital syphilis, eczema, and erythema give no reaction.

"Erysipelas and morbilli almost always give this reaction.

"The severer the attack of erysipelas or measles, the more pronounced the reaction, and when intensity of the disease vanishes the reaction looses its strength. In lethal cases the reaction remains until death is plainly pronounced. Therefore the *intensity of the disease* and the reaction go hand in hand.

"The reaction can be found in the urine of nurslings one or two days before exitus, no matter what the nature of the disease.

"The prognosis can at times be guided by the intensity of the reaction, for the more severe the disease the greater the reaction.

"The reaction is most commonly found in typhoid fever from the

"The epithelium found in urinary sediments is often of great importance in determining in what part of the genito-urinary tract the lesion exists, and a knowledge of the histology of these organs will sometimes prove invaluable.

"The presence of echinococcus, filaria, etc., determines the exact nature in those diseases.

"Dysuria is not always a manifestation of renal or vesical disease, since a high fever may at times originate it. In such cases children complain or cry out on attempting to urinate.

"This symptom belongs as well to affections of the external genitals such as phimosis, urethritis, congenital anomalies of the urethra, those of the labia minora in females, etc."

Specific Gravity.—The specific gravity of the urine is best taken with a hydrometer. If the urine is very scanty an instrument called the urinopyknometer, devised by Dr. Saxe, should be used. It has the advantage of giving the specific gravity when only 1 drachm or 3 cubic centimeters can be procured.

TEST FOR ALBUMIN.

Place in a test-tube about half a teaspoonful of pure water, in which dissolve one of the potassio-mercuric iodide tablets and one of the citric acid tablets. To this solution gradually add, drop by drop, the urine. If a gelatinous precipitate occurs, it may consist of albumin, an alkaloid such as quinine, or peptone. To determine which of these three substances was originally present in the urine, heat the contents of the tube to the boiling point and note if the precipitate is redissolved. If such be the case, the precipitation was due to peptone and not albumin, as the latter would be coagulated and would not be dissolved. If the precipitate consists of a compound of the reagent with an alkaloid, it will be dissolved completely upon the addition of alcohol, a result which would not occur if the precipitate consisted of albumin. The potassio-mercuric iodide test is exceedingly sensitive, and whenever the results are negative, no precipitate occurring upon the addition of the urine, it is positive evidence of the absence not only of albumin, but of peptone and alkaloids as well. It is only in such cases where a precipitate occurs that it becomes necessary to apply alcohol and heat tests to determine the character of the precipitate.

Directions for Use.—In testing urine for albumin with nitric acid, fill the large tube of the horismascope two-thirds full of the urine, which must be made perfectly clear and transparent, if necessary by filtration. Then pour into the funnel tube 25 or 30 minims of nitric acid, which will pass down through the capillary tube and form a layer underlying the urine.

color will change only to a purple or red, and in nearly every case five drops of normal urine will produce this change.

If one drop of the urine produces a strong reaction, dilute the urine to one-half, one-quarter, one-eighth, etc., in succession until a single drop ceases to produce a visible change, and estimate roughly in this manner the quantity of sugar present. While observing the various changes of color which the liquid undergoes, if sugar is present, any agitation of the solution should be carefully avoided. The reason for this precaution is readily explained by the fact that the original blue color of the solution may be restored by simply shaking the liquid. This remarkable effect is not due to cooling, but to the oxidizing influence of the air.

In regard to the comparative value of tests for sugar, it may be said that the copper test is the least trustworthy. Among the normal constituents of the urine, uric acid is capable of reducing copper compounds, and numerous substances which may accidentally be present have a similar action. The indigo test is capable of detecting a smaller quantity of sugar in the urine than any other reagent. One drop of a solution of glucose, containing a half grain to the fluidounce, shows a distinct reaction.

Whitney's Test (for Sugar).[1] — The following table will give the amount of sugar in analytical testing:—

TABLE No. 81.

If Reduced by	It Contains to the Ounce	Percentage.
1 minim	16.0 grains or more	3.33
2 minims	8.0 grains	1.67
3 "	5.33 "	1.11
4 "	4.0 "	0.83
5 "	3.20 "	0.67
6 "	2.67 "	0.56
7 "	2.29 "	0.48
8 "	2.0 "	0.42
9 "	1.78 gram	0.37
10 "	1.60 "	0.33

The Method of Procedure.—Heat 1 drachm of the reagent in a test-tube to boiling; add the urine slowly, drop by drop, until the blue color begins to fade; then more slowly, boiling three to five seconds after each drop, until the reagent be *perfectly colorless, like water,* or until 10 drops only are added.

It will be noted after reduction that the reagent, on cooling, resumes the blue color again. This change is due to the absorption of oxygen from the atmosphere, changing the reduced suboxide held in solution to the blue protoxide again. This should not be mistaken for imperfect reduction or defect in the reagent. The change takes place quickly by shaking the tube, and the reduction can be repeated, if done immediately, before the evaporation of the ammonia by the addition of the saccharine urine as before, though not with the same degree of accuracy.

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[1] Physicans can procure the reagent, accurately compounded as described, from the Lewis Chemical Company.

When a specimen of saccharine urine contains a large amount of albumin, the reduction takes place without interference by the albumin present, but leaves the reagent more or less of a yellow tint, according to the amount. A large amount of coloring matter has a similar effect, but there is little danger of uncertainty when not more than ten minims are used.

Fermentation Test.—With the aid of a saccharometer we have a convenient method of estimating the quantity of sugar in the urine. A piece of yeast-cake about the size of a pea is added to a test-tube of urine, and allowed to stand at a temperature of 90° F. If sugar is present, yeast transforms it into alcohol and carbon dioxide, by fermentation. While this test is reliable, it is not a very delicate one.

CHAPTER IV.

BACTERIOLOGICAL MEMORANDA.[1]

DEMONSTRATION OF TUBERCLE BACILLI IN SPUTUM.

WITH a forceps pick out a thick, purulent portion of the sputum. Make a thin spread between a slide and a cover-glass. Allow this to dry thoroughly in the air or it can be dried by holding it several inches above a Bunsen burner. Stain with several drops of Ziehl's solution and heat it over a Bunsen burner:—

Ziehl's solution:—

℞ Fuchsin	1 gram
Alcohol	10 grams
Carbolic acid	5 grams
Water	100 grams

After heating wash the cover-glass in water, and lastly add several drops of Gabbet-Ernst solution:—

℞ Methylene blue	2 grams
Diluted sulphuric acid (25 per cent.)	100 grams

Rinse this solution off the cover-glass, dry between filter paper, and mount with Canada balsam.

Under the immersion lens the tubercle bacilli will be stained red, and all other bacteria will have the blue background.

Aqueous Solutions.—Aqueous solutions of methyl violet, gentian violet, fuchsin, and the other aniline dyes are prepared by adding 1 cubic centimeter of the saturated alcoholic solutions of the desired dye to 20 cubic centimeters of distilled water. This will impart a decided color to the liquid so that a pipette full will be barely transparent.

The true aqueous solutions are made by dissolving the dyes in water, but these are weak and not so effective as those prepared from the alcoholic solutions. These solutions deteriorate in a short time. The carbol-fuchsin and alkaline methylene blue will keep a little longer, but they require to be filtered occasionally.

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[1] The reader is referred to works on bacteriology (such as Lenhartz-Brooks) for blood examinations in malaria, anæmia, leukæmia, and for the Widal reaction of the blood in typhoid fever.

GONOCOCCUS.

With a platinum loop pick out a thick purulent portion of the discharge. Make a thin spread between two slides. Dry in the air or over a Bunsen burner. Stain with methylene blue for half a minute. Rinse this solution off the slide. Dry between filter paper and mount with Canada balsam.

DIPLOCOCCUS PNEUMONIÆ.

With a platinum loop pick out a thick portion of the sputum. Make a thin spread between two cover-glasses. Immerse in a watch-glass of aniline gentian violet for ten minutes. Pass through water, and place in Gram's iodine solution for five minutes. Wash in alcohol until no further color comes away. Place on edge to dry. Mount in Canada balsam.

KLEBS-LOEFFLER BACILLUS.

Bacteriological method of diagnosis is given in detail in chapter on "Diphtheria." Bacillus stains well with Loeffler's alkaline methylene blue.

STREPTOCOCCUS.

Usually found in purulent ear, eye, or nasal discharges, sometimes in vaginitis.

With a platinum loop pick out a thick portion of the discharge. Make a thin spread between two slides. Dry in the air or over a Bunsen burner. Stain with methylene blue or fuchsin solution. Mount in Canada balsam.

MENINGOCOCCUS.

Lumbar puncture fluid in cerebro-spinal meningitis should be spread between two cover-glasses and dried over a Bunsen burner. Stain with methylene blue. Mount in Canada balsam.

CHAPTER V.

ANÆSTHETICS IN CHILDREN.

NITROUS OXIDE AND ETHER.

The ideal anæsthetic for children is a combination of nitrous oxide and ether. Whenever it is possible *one skilled in its administration should be employed.* The *responsibility of attending to a* major or minor operation is so great that unless *one skilled in the administration of an anæsthetic* is employed there may be serious after-effects. To properly guard the heart and respiration requires experience, and no surgeon should undertake to do both, excepting in extreme emergencies.

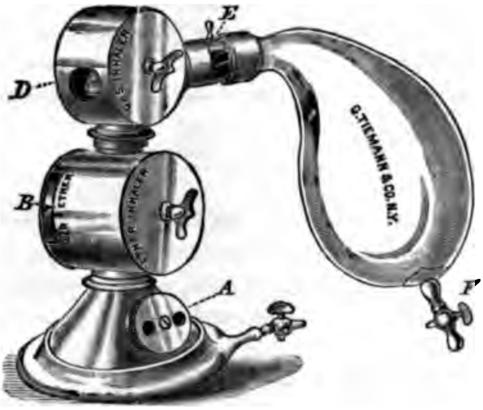

Fig. 301.—Gas and Ether Inhaler.

Walter K., 5 years old, was given a mixture of nitrous oxide and ether by Dr. Culler. The child was anæsthetized without a struggle. I removed the adenoids and hypertrophied tonsils. The child showed no evidence of shock. There was slight nausea. No other evidence of gastric disturbance. There were no after-effects.

CHLOROFORM.

Chloroform vapor is decomposed into chlorine and hydrochloric acid by the presence of the common gas flame, and may thus give rise to irritating effects upon the respiratory organs.

When employed it should be administered by the drop method. By this method, combined with fresh air, the danger is minimized. The statistics of Dr. George Gould, of Philadelphia, and the Lancet Commissioner, prove that chloroform anæsthesia causes more deaths than ether as an anæsthetic.

ETHYL CHLORIDE.

This is an excellent anæsthetic and can be administered as a spray on a chloroform mask. I have frequently used it in my hospital service to remove adenoids, tonsils, and for a circumcision. Ethyl chloride is a rapid and safe anæsthetic.

Local Anæsthesia.—Ethyl chloride, as a spray until the part is frozen, is sufficient to open an abscess, for a lumbar puncture, or even an empyema, in a sensitive child, or where general anæsthesia is contraindicated.

ETHER.

Sulphuric ether, used alone as an anæsthetic in children, may be considered. It requires a much longer time to produce its effect, although it has no depressing effect upon the heart. Statistics show that in 300,175 administrations of ether there were 18 deaths. Out of 638,461 of chloroform, there were 160 deaths, showing the following ratio:—

Chloroform mortality	1 to 3,749
Ether mortality	1 to 16.675

We therefore see that ether is by far the safer anæsthetic. Weir states that "ether narcosis is safer, even though the kidneys are slightly affected." Ether is frequently combined with oxygen, and, as previously stated, with laughing gas, and forms in the latter combination *the safest anæsthetic for children.*

Regarding the Effect of Ether in Affections of the Air Passages.—Affections of the air passages following ether narcosis are usually the result of aspiration of infected mouth contents. Ether causes a slight increase of mucous secretion. It has no irritant action on the tracheal or bronchial mucous membrane. When bronchitis or pneumonia exists, greater care must be taken owing to the increased secretion produced by the ether, as stated above. When nitrous oxide is given we avoid the irritant effect just described.

In adenoid operations, give nitrous oxide until cyanosis is seen, then give ether; the change relieves cyanosis at once.

Lymphatic Enlargement in Children.—Most deaths occur in children in which the lymphatic condition exists—the so-called lymphatic diathesis.

The Children's Clinic at Graz, during the last twenty years, shows that records of fatalities with chloroform always revealed the lymphatic hyperplasia, which is the principal feature of the so-called constitutio lymphatica. (Read chapter on "Status Lymphaticus.")

Ewing believes the above conditions prevail in America. Lartigan's report of the Roosevelt Hospital shows that death came after ether as well as after chloroform, in children affected by the lymphatic constitution.

The presence of universal enlargement of the lymph nodes without direct inflammatory cause, hypertrophied tonsils, adenoid hyperplasia, tendencies to anæmia, weakness of pulse, irregular heart's action, along with insufficient development of the heart and large blood-vessels, show that the lymphatic condition exists.

LOCAL ANÆSTHESIA BY THE INJECTION OF STERILE WATER.[1]

When the heart, lungs, or kidneys contraindicate the use of a general anæsthetic, then local anæsthesia should be tried. Gant advises the use of regional injections of sterile water in the part to be incised. He claims that an abscess can be opened or similar surgical work performed without pain by this means. It is well worth trying.

INTRA-SPINAL ANÆSTHESIA.[2]

Corning, of New York, about twenty years ago found that anæsthesia could be produced in the lower part of the body by injecting cocaine in the lumbar region of the spine. The patient is placed in a sitting position well bent forward, and firmly held during the injection. The skin should be cleaned in the usual antiseptic way, followed by an ethyl chloride spray. This renders the introduction of the needle practically painless. A point one-half inch to either side of the median line and midway between the spinous processes is taken, and the needle pushed forward, inward, and upward. Special effort is made to keep away from the central part of the spinal canal by a close relation of the needle point to the dura. The instrument used is of the simplest kind. A small-sized, steel aspirating needle with a short-beveled pointed end, having a well-fitted hypodermic barrel, answers every purpose. As nearly as possible the same amount of cerebro-spinal fluid is allowed to escape as of the injection medium which is to be introduced. The injection is given slowly, usually taking one and one-half to two and one-half minutes. Often the first evidence that the cocaine is taking effect is some dilatation of the pupils or a slight nausea.

This method has been especially valuable where circumcision is to be performed, or where the examination of the bladder is to be made. In children I have frequently found considerable nausea and vomiting following the use of cocaine; the same is also true of eucaine. The analgesic effect of eucaine is in some cases as good as that of cocaine.

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[1] For details of this method, see article of Gant's, published in the New York Medical Journal, January 23, 1904.

[2] The technique of lumbar puncture is described in article on "Meningitis" (page 787).

Dose Required.—Five, rarely ten minims of freshly prepared 2 per cent. cocaine solution are required. The solution should be freshly prepared for each case, by dissolving the eucaine or cocaine in sterile water. It is well to remember that there are certain toxic effects noted in some children. This should be borne in mind, and individual idiosyncrasies noted.

CHAPTER VI.

DISINFECTION.

The modern conception of the transmission of such infectious diseases as diphtheria, scarlet fever, measles, and cerebro-spinal meningitis has resulted in a complete reversal of the methods of fumigation, isolation, and quarantine. The Health Department of the city of New York has, as recent as July, 1913, issued orders that: "On account of the practical absence of danger from bedding used by the patient, the removal of such bedding for disinfection after the termination of cases of diphtheria, scarlet fever, measles, cerebro-spinal meningitis and poliomyelitis should be discontinued. In exceptional instances where the family or physician insist upon sterilization of bedding, it will still be performed by the department. In special cases, where proper and efficient fumigation cannot be performed by reason of the nature of the premises, bedding will be removed after the termination of these diseases, and bedding will also be removed in cases of small-pox."

The best disinfectant is sunlight and fresh air. There is no danger from the air of the room in which the patient suffering from diphtheria is confined. There is danger in the secretions from the nose and mouth, or if there is a mouth to mouth contact with a patient suffering from diphtheria.

The *presence of insects in the sick room,* especially flies, should be guarded against as much as possible, in view of the fact that they may act as carriers of the disease. No food should be allowed to stand uncovered in the sick room, as in certain cases pathogenic organisms may gain access and multiply therein.

Sputa are best disinfected by steam sterilization, together with the sputum cups. The addition of 15 grams of sal-soda to a liter of water materially aids the process of cleaning.

Urine and fæces are best treated together by means of milk of lime. In this we possess the most valuable agent for the disinfection of typhoid and cholera stools. This agent is prepared as follows: To unslacked lime, placed in a jar, as much water as it will absorb is added. The unslacked lime is stirred up with 4 parts of water to form the milk of lime, and this is mixed intimately with the discharges until the mixture gives a strong alkaline reaction (tested by litmus paper).

Chloride of lime, to be effective, must contain 25 per cent. of available chlorine. Six ounces to the gallon of water represents the standard solution.

Carbolic acid, unless in combination with sulphuric, and corrosive sublimate are *not suitable* for the disinfection of stools.

Discharges can also be disposed of by burning after being mixed with sawdust.

Water-closets are best disinfected by chloride of lime solution.

CHAPTER VII.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF DRUGS TO CHILDREN.

A FEW points concerning the use of drugs in children should be noted:—

1. Give the minimum dose of a drug in the beginning of a disease.
2. Administer the drug in a palatable form.
3. The soluble tablet triturates should be administered, as they combine a minimum quantity with solubility and palatability.
4. Remember the idiosyncrasies of drugs and guard against toxic doses by watching the effect of a drug in any given case.
5. In some specific diseases such as diphtheria, give a sufficient quantity of antitoxin to obtain a therapeutic result.
6. Certain drugs, for example, belladonna, calomel, quinine, strychnia, bromoform, and alcohol, *when cautiously administered* can be given in very large doses. It is only necessary to note the physiological effect and then to give the drug until its point of tolerance is reached.

Accuracy in dealing with poisons is very important in children. It is surprising to see the difference in size of various teaspoons on the market. I advise using a medicine glass, which is graduated with teaspoon, etc.

CHAPTER VIII.

LOCAL REMEDIES.

COLD COMPRESSES.

Cold compresses may be made out of linen or cheese-cloth folded several times and wrung out in ice-water. If there is any abrasion of the skin, 1 part of glycerine should be added to every 5 parts of water. If constant cold is wanted, compresses should be changed frequently.

HOT COMPRESSES OR FOMENTATIONS.

Hot compresses or fomentations are made by wringing out a piece of flannel in hot water. As this is oftentimes hotter than the hands can stand, the flannel may be placed in a towel, two ends being kept from the water and then wrung out in the towel by twisting the ends. In applying fomentations they should not be hotter than can be borne by the face of the mother or nurse. To retain the heat they may be covered with oil silk, oil paper, or oiled muslin, and then with a dry towel. Renew when cool.

POULTICES.

A poultice is intended to supply heat for a greater period than a fomentation. It should not be more than one-half inch in thickness.

A flaxseed poultice is made as follows: A sufficient quantity of water is heated, and when brought almost to the boiling point, the flaxseed meal should be added slowly, stirring all the while to avoid lumping. The meal may be added until it has the consistency of hot mush, too thick to flow. This may be spread on a piece of linen or cotton cloth, the edges turned over slightly and the part to which it is to be applied next to the body must be covered with an old handkerchief or thin piece of linen. See that it is not hot enough to burn the skin. The poultice should be larger than the affected area. Afterward cover with oil silk or paper to keep out the air, and then bandage in place. This can be renewed every hour or so. Have everything ready when the poultice is made, as it quickly cools when exposed to the air.

TURPENTINE STUPES.

Turpentine stupes are found very useful in cases of abdominal pain. A piece of flannel is wrung out in hot water, the same as in a fomentation.

except a little soap or oil added to the water. A little turpentine should then be sprinkled evenly over the surface of the flannel, about 30 drops to each square foot or a teaspoonful may be added to the water. Apply the same as a fomentation.

MUSTARD PLASTERS.

Mustard plasters for infants should be made with 1 part of mustard to 3 or 4 parts of flour or flaxseed meal. Add warm water and stir until of the proper consistency. Spread thinly on a cloth and apply directly to the skin. It is to be kept on until the skin is reddened, not blistered.

GINGER POULTICE.

Ginger poultice is made in the same way as that described for the making of mustard plasters, and has its advantages in that it will not blister.

CANTHARIDAL COLLODION.

In using the cantharidal collodion care should be exercised to remove all moisture and excretions from the skin before applying, otherwise the cantharidin, being soluble in water, will not come into contact with the skin. One of the most convenient methods of preparing the skin for the application of cantharidal collodion is to wash the part with vinegar or dilute acetic acid.

VENESECTION (BLOOD LETTING).

Local blood letting is frequently a valuable therapeutic aid, especially in meningitis and in cerebral pneumonia, in fact, wherever symptoms of cerebral hyperæmia are noted. Convulsions are sometimes prevented by relieving congestion with the aid of a few leeches. Baginsky reports the value of venesection as a routine measure in certain types of diseases, such as continued convulsions, in which relief can be afforded by this means. The skill of the surgeon is necessary, for we must consider the possibility of infection while opening a vein.

DRY CUPPING.

The application of dry cups is useful in marked dyspnœa. It is therefore indicated in asthma, broncho-pneumonia, and in pulmonary œdema, two cups may be applied on each side posteriorly for several minutes. If relief is afforded, they can be applied once every twelve hours.

CHAPTER IX.

RECTAL MEDICATION IN CHILDREN.

When the stomach is irritable in young children I prefer to medicate per rectum. The gastric mucous membrane will sometimes show an intolerance for drugs. It is advisable, especially in exhaustive diseases, such as diphtheria, typhoid fever, and the intestinal disorders, to support the strength of the body with nutrition. In such cases vomiting may be provoked by the administration of drugs. Children will frequently object to taking medicine, and it is painful to watch the struggle between mother and child while attempting to force the medicine into the infant's mouth. In such cases, especially in very young infants with whom we cannot reason, the rectum should be chosen as the proper channel for the introduction of the drug. The rectum absorbs slowly but surely.

The following drugs may be given per rectum and the doses gradually increased:—

Aconite may be given in suppository, but shows its action only in large doses. We must therefore administer it in repeated small doses to obtain its effect. For example, we may give 1 or 2 drops of the tincture in a suppository to a year-old child.

Belladonna acts as an excellent sedative in cough, and exerts a very favorable influence on the muscle fiber of the intestine. We may use $^{1}/_{6}$ minim of extract of belladonna in twenty-four hours, divided into three or four suppositories, for every two years of age.

Bromides should be given in doses of 3 grains for each year of life, in two suppositories; $^{3}/_{4}$ grain if it is to be continued. In severe spasm we may give two grains for each year of life, in two suppositories rapidly following each other; for example, in laryngismus stridulus.

Caffeine is usually injected subcutaneously. It may, however, be administered in a suppository with equal parts of benzoate of sodium. For example, one and one-half grains to a suppository, using two daily for each year of the child's life.

Digitalis.—Powdered digitalis is with difficulty absorbed by the rectum. The tincture should, therefore, be used. The maximum dose for each year of life is 4 drops, divided into two suppositories.

Iodine and its preparations are exceptionally well borne by the rectum, and fully absorbed. Three grains for each year of life, in two suppositories, is the maximum dose; $^{3}/_{4}$ grain if it is to be continued.

Mercury should only exceptionally be given per rectum, and then only in the form of calomel, $^3/_4$ grain in a suppository for each year of life.

Nux Vomica.—One-sixth of a grain for every two years, in three suppositories.

Strychnine should only be given to children over 10 years of age.

Salicylic Acid.—Seven and three-quarter grains for each year of life, in divided doses (three or four).

Quinine is best given in suppositories. The daily maximum dose is 2 to 3 $^1/_3$ grains, in two suppositories, for each year of life.

Antipyrine may be given in the same dose as quinine.

Opium.—Pulvis opii may be given in suppositories, in doses of $^1/_{66}$ grain for each year of the child's age, and this dose may be repeated in severe cases every two hours.

Toxic symptoms should be carefully watched for, and the use of the remedy discontinued on their appearance. These doses are small ones and may be increased.

CHAPTER X.

PRESCRIPTIONS FOR VARIOUS DISEASES.

THE following prescriptions have served the author and are in use at one of his clinics in New York City:—

Summer Diarrhœa.

℞ Calomel tablets, $^{1}/_{10}$ grain.
One every two hours for a child 1 to 2 years old.
Followed by (next day):—

℞ Bismuth betanaphthol, 5 grains.
Every two hours in water. Or

℞ Mist. creta, 2 ounces.
Teaspoonful every two hours. Or

℞ Bismuthi subnit., 20 grains.
Misturæ cretæ comp., 4 drachms.
Aquæ, q. s. ad 2 ounces.
M. Teaspoonful every two hours.

Gastro-enteritis.

℞ Castor oil.
Teaspoonful every two hours for one day.
If diarrhœa persists after flushing the colon and rectum and also washing the stomach, after using former remedies:—

℞ Eudoxine, 5 grains.
Every three hours.
The diet is most important.

Persistent Vomiting.

Lavage (stomach washing) with table salt one teaspoonful to quart of warm water (100° F.). Then leave stomach rest for at least six hours.

Mouth-wash.

Pulv. acid. boric. solution (1 per cent.).

Stomatitis or Aphthæ.

℞ Solut. Kali Permangan. (1 per cent.).
Dilute with equal parts of warm water. Wash three times a day.

Tonic After Exhaustive Disease, Such as Pneumonia or Summer Diarrhœa.

℞ Ferri pyrophos., 1 drachm.
Quininæ sulph., $^{1}/_{2}$ drachm.
Strych. sulph., ¼ grain.
Acid phosph. dil., 2 drachms.
Aquæ, q. s. ad 4 ounces.
M. Teaspoonful three times a day.

Tonic and Restorative.

℞ Ferri et quiniæ citrat., $^{1}/_{2}$ drachm.
Syrup hypophos. comp., 4 drachms.
Aquæ, q. s. ad 2 ounces.
M. Teaspoonful after each meal.

Tonic for Chorea.

℞ Liq. potass. arsenitis, ½ drachm.
Ferri et ammon. citrat., 1 drachm.
Aquæ, q. s. ad 2 ounces.
M. Teaspoonful three times a day. Increase gradually.

Pertussis.

℞ Bromoform (Merck), 1 drachm.
Tinct. cardamom comp., 1 drachm.
M. D. S.: -Five drops in water three times a day for a child 1 year old.

Add 1 drop for every two years, thus:
6 drops for baby 3 years old
7 drops for baby 5 years old

Or:—

℞ Fl. ext. belladonna, 10 drops.
Mist. glycerrhiz. comp., q. s. ad. 2 ounces.
M. D. S.: Teaspoonful every two hours for a child 2 to 4 years old; younger children $^{1}/_{2}$ the dose.

Or:—

Apply ung. belladonna over surface of chest every second night.

Capillary Bronchitis.

When expectoration is viscid:—

℞ Ammon. carbonat., 10 grains.
Syr. senega, 4 drachms.
Syr. prun. virg., 6 drachms.
Aquæ camph., q. s. ad 2 ounces.

M. D. S.: Teaspoonful every two hours with water.

Acute Catarrhal Bronchitis.

℞ Ammon. muriat., 15 grains.
Ammon. bromid., 20 grains.
Syr. liquorit, 6 drachms.
Tinct. opii camph., 2 drachms.
Aquæ, q. s. ad 2 ounces.

M. D. S.: One-half teaspoonful every two hours.

Pleurisy.

(Cough with pain, on breathing.)

℞ Pulv. Doveri, 10 grains.
Pulv. ext. liquorit, 20 grains.
Sacch. albi, 30 grains.

M. ft. chart. no. 20.

M. D. S.: One powder every three hours.

Tubercular Cough.

℞ Creosote carbonate.

Five drops in milk, soup or broth three times a day, for a child 2 years old.

Persistent Diarrhœa, with Tubercular Symptoms.

℞ Guiacol carbonate, 3 to 5 grains.
For a child 1 year old.

Entero-colitis.

℞ Tinct. kino, 20 minims.
Misturæ cretæ comp., 1 drachm.
Aquæ, q. s. ad 2 ounces.

M. Teaspoonful every three hours.

Colitis, with Pain.

℞ Tinct. opii camph., 10 minims.
Bismuthi subnit., 2 grains.
Aquæ calcis, q. s. ad 4 drachms.

M. Teaspoonful every two hours.

Atonic Dyspepsia, with Constipation.

℞ Pulv. rad. ipecacuanhæ, 1 grain.
Pulv. rad. rhei, 10 grains.
Sodii bicarbonat., 1/2 drachm.
Tinct. nucis vomicæ, 15 drops.
Aquæ, q. s. ad 2 ounces.

M. Teaspoonful before each feeding.

To Abort Acute Tonsillitis.

℞ Creosote, 8 drops.
Tinct. myrrh, 2 ounces.
Glycerine, 2 ounces.
Aquæ, 4 ounces.

M. D. S.: Gargle every hour.

Acute Tonsillitis.

℞ Tinct. aconit. rad.

One drop every hour for six doses to a child 1 to 5 years old.

Infantile Eczema.

(Dry, vesicular and papular.)

Leistikow recommends:

℞ Zinci oxidi, 1 drachm.
Amyli, 1 drachm.
Adipis lanæ, 1 drachm.
Petrolati, 2½ drachms.
Hydrar. oxid. flav., 4 to 8 grains.

M. ft. pasta.

Kistler employs the following ointment to relieve the itching of infantile eczema:—

℞ Salicylic acid, 15 grains.
Bismuth subnitrat., 4 drachms.
Powdered starch, 1 1/2 drachms.
Cold cream, 2 ounces.

Calomel, in the dose of 1 or 2 grains, is indicated from one to three times a week, to aid in the elimination of pathologic products.

STIMULATING EXPECTORANT USEFUL IN BRONCHITIS.

℞ Ammon. carbonat., 1/2 drachm.
Tinct. senegæ, 20 drops.
Tinct. opii camphorat., 3 drachms,
Syr. tolutan, 5 drachms.
Aquæ, q. s. ad 6 ounces.

M. Teaspoonful every two or four hours. Diluted with water.

TUBERCULOSIS.

℞ Creosote carbonate, 30 drops.
Spiritus frumenti, 4 drachms.
Glycerinæ, 4 drachms.
Aquæ, q. s. ad 4 ounces.

M. Teaspoonful every four hours or oftener.

VAGINITIS.

℞ Alum, powdered, 1 ounce.
Or:—
℞ Zinc sulphate, 1 ounce.
Or:—
℞ Borax, 1 ounce.

Sig.: A tablespoonful to a quart of water to be used as a vaginal injection three or four times a day. Apply a sterile pad of cheese-cloth. A fresh pad to be applied after each irrigation.

FEVER MIXTURE.

℞ Tr. aconite rad., 16 drops.
Spir. mindererus, 2 ounces.

M. Sig.: One-half teaspoonful every hour for a child 2 to 4 years old.

HYPODERMIC MEDICATION.

When immediate relief is required, hypodermic medication should be given. The rapid action of hypodermic medication is best shown in giving a dose of apomorphia hypodermically for the relief of spasmodic croup.

CHAPTER XI.

REMEDIES MOST FREQUENTLY ADMINISTERED.

For hypodermic use the dose should be half that used by the mouth. *For use by rectum* the dose should be twice that used by the mouth.

Dose for Children.—Dr. Young's rule: Add 12 to the age, and divide the age by the result.

Example.—For a child 2 years old, $\frac{12+2}{2}=\frac{1}{7}$. The dose should be $^1/_7$ that for an adult.

In giving powerful medicines and opium still smaller doses must be used for children.

TABLE OF DOSES.

Owing to the toxic effect, drugs marked "*" must be given with greater caution.

REMEDIES.	GRAINS OR MINIMS FOR CHILD THREE YEARS OLD.
*Acid, arsenious	0.003 to 0.01
benzoic	1 to 3
boric	1 to 2
camphoric (to check night-sweats)	3 to 6
*carbolic	0.1 to 0.3
gallic	0.6 to 3
gallic (in albuminuria)	2 to 12
hydrobromic, diluted	2 to 12
hydrochloric, diluted	1 to 4
*hydrocyanic, diluted	0.4 to 1.2
nitric, diluted	1 to 4
nitrohydrochloric, diluted	1 to 4
phosphoric, diluted	1 to 6
salicylic	1 to 4
sulphuric, aromatic	1 to 3
sulphuric, diluted	1 to 6
sulphurous	6 to 12
tannic	0.4 to 2
*Aconitina (white crystals)	0.0007 to 0.001
*Adonidin (heart-tonic)	0.02 to 0.065
Aloes	0.4 to 1
Aloinum	0.025 to 0.6
Ammonii benzoas	2 to 4
bromidum	1 to 6
carbonas	0.6 to 2
chloridum	2 to 6
iodidum	0.4 to 3
valerianas	0.4 to 3
*Amyl nitris (inhaled or internally)	0.4 to 1
Antimonii et potassii tartras (diaphoretic)	0.01 to 0.02
et potassii tartras (emetic)	0.2 to 0.4
oxysulphuret	0.1 to 0.4
Antipyrin	0.4 to 3

Remedies.	Grains or Minims for Child Three Years Old.
Apomorphine hydrochloride	0.0065 to 0.02
Argenti nitras	0.035 to 0.1
*Arsenii iodidum	0.003 to 0.02
*bromidum	0.003 to 0.012
*Atropinæ sulphas	0.0015 to 0.006
*Auri et sodii chloridum	0.006 to 0.025
Bismuthi subnitras	1 to 12
salicylas	1 to 4
*Bromoformum (in whooping-cough, etc.)	1 to 2
Caffeine	0.2 to 1
Calcii chloridum hydratum	1 to 4
Calcii lacto-phosphas	1 to 2
Camphora	0.6 to 2
monobromata	0.4 to 1
Cerii oxalas	0.2 to 2
Chinoidinum	0.6 to 6
Chloral	0.6 to 4
Chloralamidum (hypnotic)	3 to 12
Chloroformum	0.2 to 6
Chrysarobinum (eczema)	0.035 to 0.6
Cinchonidina, and its salts	1 to 6
Cocaina (locally, ¼ per cent. solution), internally	0.012 to 0.1
Codeina	0.012 to 0.4
*Colchicine	0.002 to 0.004
Confectio sennæ	12 to 24
*Creolin (locally, ½ to 2 per cent. solution), internally	0.1 to 1
Creosotum	0.1 gradually increased
Croton-chloral	0.2 to 1
Cupri acetas	0.025 to 0.1
sulphas (emetic)	0.012 to 0.05
*Digitalinum	0.003 to 0.006
*Digitalis	0.025 to 0.4
*Duboisina, and salts	0.0015 to 0.0033
*Elaterinum (U. S. P., 1880)	0.0035 to 0.016
Emetina, and salts (emetic)	0.025 to 0.05
Ergota	3 to 12
Ergotinum	0.4 to 1.6
*Erythrophlœina (local anæsthetic, heart-tonic)	0.012 to 0.025
*Eserina, and its salts	0.003 to 0.01
Ethyl chloride (local anæsthetic)	
Fel bovis purificatum	1 to 2
Ferri arsenas	0.01 to 0.035
bromidum	0.2 to 1
carbonas saccharatus	0.4 to 3
et ammonii citras	1 to 2
et ammonii tartras	1 to 3
et potassi tartras	2 to 6
et strychninæ citras	0.2 to 1
hypophosphis	1 to 2
iodidum saccharatum	0.4 to 1
lactas	0.2 to 0.6
oxidum hydratum cum magnesia (antidote to arsenic)	fʒ 0.8 to fʒ 1.6 frequently
pyrophosphas	0.2 to 1
subcarbonas	1 to 6

Remedies.	Grains or Minims for Child Three Years Old.
Ferri sulphas	0.2 to 0.6
sulphas exsiccatus	0.1 to 0.5
valerianas	0.2 to 0.6
Ferrum dialys	0.2 to 3
reductum	0.2 to 1
Gaultheria, oil of	0.6 to 2
Guaiacol (constituent of creosote)	0.05 to 1
Guaiacol carbonas *vel* benzoas	0.065 to 2
Homatropinæ hydrobromidum (mydriatic, locally, 0.2 per cent. to 4 per cent.)	0.035 to 0.5
*Hydrargyri chloridum corrosivum	0.003 to 0.02
*chloridum mite	0.012 to 2
*Hydrargyri iodidum rubrum	0.004 to 0.02
iodidum vir.	0.035 to 0.2
subsulphas flava (as emetic)	0.4 to 1
Hydrargyrum cum creta	0.6 to 1.6
Hydrastine	0.6 to 1
Hydrogenii dioxidum (10-volume solution), locally, (25 to 100 per cent.), antiseptic	6 to 24
*Hyoscinæ hydrobromas	0.001 to 0.0035
*Hyoscyaminæ sulphas	0.001 to 0.003
Ichthyol (locally, 10 to 50 per cent.), internally	0.6 to 1
Infusum digitalis	fʒ 0.2 to fʒ 0.8
Iodoformum	0.2 to 1
Iodol	0.035 to 0.1
Iodum	0.02 to 0.05
Ipecacuanha (expectorant)	0.035 to 0.2
" (emetic)	3 to 6
Jalapa	3 to 6
Liq. ammonii acetatis	fʒ 0.4 to fʒ 1.6
acidi arseniosi arsenii bromidi arseni et hydrargyri iodidi potassii arsenitis sodii arseniatis Commencing doses to be increased cautiously	0.2 to 1
ferri chloridi	0.4 to 2
ferri dialys	2 to 6
potassii citratis	fʒ 0.4 to fʒ 0.8
Lithii benzoas	1 to 4
bromidum	1 to 4
carbonas	0.4 to 2
citras	1 to 4
salicylas	1 to 6
Lupulinum	1 to 6
Magnesii carbonas	3 to 12
citras, gran.	ʒ 0.4 to ʒ 1.6
sulphas	2 to 6
Mangani oxidum niger	0.2 to 1
Methylene blue with powdered nutmeg (malarial fevers)	0.2 to 1
Mistura chloroformi	fʒ 0.2 to fʒ 1.6
ferri et ammonii acetatis	fʒ 0.2 to fʒ 0.8
glycyrrhizæ composita	fʒ 0.2 to fʒ 0.8
potassi citras	fʒ 0.8 to fʒ 3.2
rhei et sodæ	fʒ 0.8 to fʒ 1.6
Morphina, and its salts	0.0012 to 0.006
Morrhuol (derivative of cod liver-oil)	0.6 to 12
Moschus	0.4 to 3
Naphthol	0.4 to 1
*Nitroglycerinum (trinitrin), ½ per cent. solution	gtt. 0.5 increased

REMEDIES.	GRAINS OR MINIMS FOR CHILD THREE YEARS OLD
Oleoresina aspidii (filix mas)	1 to 3
Opium (14 per cent. morphine)	0.025 to 0.4
Phenocoll hydrochloride	1.6 to 3
*Phosphorus	0.0015 to 0.004
*Physostigminæ sulphas	0.0015 to 0.004
*Picrotoxinum	0.0016 to 0.004
*Pilocarpina, and salts (cautiously)	0.003 to 0.001
Piperazin	3 (daily)
Plumbi acetas	0.1 to 0.6
Potassii acetas	3 to 12
bicarbonas	1.6 to 12
Potassi bromidum	1.6 to 12
bitartras	0.2 to 0.4
chloras	1.6 to 6
cyanidum	0.01 to 0.025
iodidum	0.4 to 6
nitras	0.4 to 3
permanganas	0.1 to 1
tartras	3 0.2 to 3 1.6
Pulvis antimonialis	0.2 to 0.6
glycyrrhizæ compositus	6 to 12
ipecacuanhæ et opii	1 to 3
jalapæ compositus	2 to 12
rhei compositus	1 to 12
Resina copaibæ	0.4 to 2
euonymi	0.4 to 1
guaiaci	1 to 4
jalapæ	0.4 to 1
podophylli	0.016 to 0.1
scammonii	0.4 to 2
Resorcin	0.4 to 1
Rheum	0.4 to 6
Saccharine (substitute for sugar)	0.1 to 1
Salicinum	1 to 6
Salipyrin (antipyretic, antineuralgic)	1.6 to 3
Salol	0.4 to 2
Salophen (antipyretic, antirheumatic)	3 to 4
Santonium	0.05 to 1
Senna	1.6 to 36
*Sodii arsenas	0.003 to 0.02
benzoas	1 to 3
boras (in epilepsy)	1 to 6
bromidum	1 to 6
chloras	0.4 to 1
hyposulphis	1 to 4
iodidum	0.4 to 6
phosphas	0.4 to 24
salicylas	1 to 6
*Sparteinæ sulphas (cardiant and diuretic)	0.012 to 0.8
Spiritus ætheris nitrosi	3 to 24
ætheris compositus	3 to 24
ammoniæ aromaticus	3 to 12
camphoræ	1 to 6
chloroformi	3 to 12
Strontii lactas *vel* bromidum *vel* iodidum	3 to 12
*Strychnina, and salts	0.003 to 0.016
Sulphonal (best in hot mint-water)	1 to 4

REMEDIES.	GRAINS OR MINIMS FOR CHILD THREE YEARS OLD.
Sulphur	ʒ 0.1 to ʒ 0.8
Syr. ferri bromidi	1 to 12
ferri iodidi	1 to 6
scillæ compositus	1 to 6
senegæ	fʒ 0.2 to fʒ 0.4
sennæ	fʒ 0.2 to fʒ 1.6
Terebene	1 to 3
Terpin hydrate (tonic expectorant)	0.4 to 1
Theobrominæ et sodii salicylas (diuretic)	1 to 6
Thymol	0.2 to 1
*Tinctura aconiti	0.1 to 1
aloes	3 to 12
asafœtidæ	6 to 12
belladonnæ	0.4 to 3
cannabis indicæ	1 to 4
capsici	1.6 to 3
cimicifugæ	6 to 12
cinchonæ composita	3 to 24
colchici seminis	1 to 4
conii	1 to 6
*digitalis	0.6 to 3
ferri chloridi	2 to 6
gelsemii	0.4 to 3
guaiaci ammoniata	6 to 12
hydrastis	6 to 24
hyoscyami	1 to 6
*ignatiæ	1 to 6
iodi compositus	1.4 to 3
kino	3 to 24
lobeliæ	1 to 6
moschi	3 to 12
nucis vomicæ	1 to 3
*opii	0.4 to 3
opii camphorata	1 to 48
*physostigmatis	1 to 3
stramonii	1 to 3
strophanthi (cardiant and diuretic)	0.2 to 2
valerianæ ammoniata	2 to 24
veratri viridis	0.6 to 2
*Trional (hypnotic)	3 to 12
Trituratio elaterini (10 per cent.)	0.025 to 0.2
Vinum antimonii (expectorant and alterative)	0.2 to 1.6
(emetic)	6 to 15
colchici	1 to 3
ergotæ	fʒ 0.2 to fʒ 0.6
ipecacuanhæ (expectorant)	1 to 3
(emetic)	fʒ 0.4 to fʒ 1.2
opii	1 to 3
Zinci acetas	0.1 to 0.4
bromidum	0.1 to 1
iodidum	0.1 to 0.6
oxidum	0.2 to 1
phosphidum	0.02 to 0.035
sulphas (emetic)	3 to 6
valerianas	0.1 to 1

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